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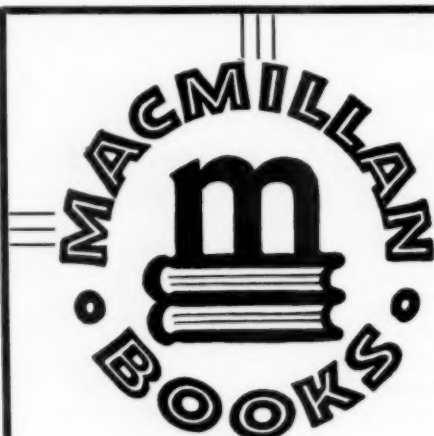
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXI, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1940

Does Education Influence Democracy?¹

ELIZABETH BACHRACH

Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Texas

To one who has seen at the close range of personal experience the rise and fall of democratic governments, it is clear that to become permanent, a democracy cannot be imposed upon a people unprepared to receive it. A thorough process of education must precede the establishment of a firm democracy—an education which provides for the systematic development and cultivation of the intellect of the entire people, so as to render them capable of understanding the principles of democracy and of living in conformity with those principles. This educative process may be an evolutionary development over a long period of years. It was usually made effective in a short period of time in a revolutionary manner.

In order to see this problem more clearly it may be of interest to look at the historical development of democracy in modern times. The originators of the liberal ideas of the eighteenth century were John Locke, Montesquieu, and Rousseau. After long study of ancient and contemporary constitutions, these philosophers found the contemporary absolute monarchies unsatisfactory and, in many ways, unjust. This conviction led them to the basic theory of modern democracy; namely, that the best form of state is that in which the will of the people is the authoritative power. Those theories found expression in the Declaration of Independence and in the liberal constitutions formed after the American and French revolutions.

The problem was not completely solved with the

mere expression of the principles of democracy; it was more difficult for them to take root in the people and begin a normal process of growth and development. This adjustment was particularly difficult for the French—a people equipped with a highly critical mind and a strong self-will. Democracy had to undergo severe trial during periods of reaction, but the nineteenth century at last saw the goal reached. The absolutism of ambitious kings was replaced by a republic with a representative assembly and a president with greatly limited, representative powers. This success was made possible only by means of the constant education of the people.

The field in England was better prepared to receive democracy as the basis for parliamentary government had been established already in the thirteenth century with the Magna Charta. Here the problem was to put into operation the already mentally-completed democratic system. Through her characteristic thorough and conservative methods of education, England has been able to build up a system which is the strongest bulwork of democracy in Europe. This training and a close attachment to tradition form a strong bond among the various parts of the British Empire. Whatever the future may hold for England, she will be the last country to surrender her democracy to any other form of government. Whether other democracies like or dislike Great Britain and her foreign policy and therefore side with her or against her, they will nevertheless find in her the leading champion of democracy and the surest protection of their own systems.

It is difficult to agree with those who say that the

¹ The writer of this article is an Austrian, who studied law and political science at the University of Vienna, where she was granted the doctor's degree.

man on the street does not care what form of government his country has as long as he has "a job and some fun." In Russia and Germany, where a liberal political education is not imparted, but the only training is toward militaristic and despotic ideals, it may be true. But one will not find that attitude in the Scandinavian countries or in the former Czechoslovakian or Polish states.

Another phrase often heard in central or southern Europe, likewise bears a false ring. "Democracy may be all right for rich countries like the United States, England, and France, but poor countries cannot afford to be governed by the will of the people." The Baltic states can be cited as examples to prove the falsity of this view. In spite of a lack of riches and natural resources these countries have built up well-working democracies and have attained some degree of prosperity or at least better standards of living. Baltic youth was trained for generations in liberal ideas and ideals and the ever present view of Russian despotism was a strong argument in favor for democracy.

It is, however, undeniably true that the economic situation of any state is an important factor in its political development, and neither democracy nor any other form of government can exist in a state where the economic condition is permanently distressing. Such a state is an ideal workshop for anarchistic and nihilistic movements. The failure of democracy in Germany is commonly attributed solely to the economic distress of the republic. Close observation however, will show another equally important cause of the failure of the Weimar Constitution. The German state underwent a radical transformation with lightning rapidity. Almost over night it changed from a constitutional monarchy to a democratic republic. There was no attempt at preparing the minds of the people for democratic principles, no gradual evolutionary development. Previous to the actual setting up of democracy, liberal thinkers were banned because of their ideas and the masses were guarded from those principles. Then in 1918, schools, assemblies, and books were used in an attempt to change the thought of the nation. The change was too sudden! The background of the people was not such as to make them receptive to democratic principles. The common people could not understand the new form of government; the intellectuals for the most part, did not want to see it take root. They longed for the *ancien régime* and a restoration of the *Kaisertum*. The new régime was far away from being ideally democratic. The German youth, disappointed at the outcome of the war, and bitter towards the western democracies, whose democratic ideals apparently could not be extended beyond their own borders to regulate their treatment of a defeated power, felt only contempt and hatred for democracy.

The nebulous promises of anti-democratic leaders found in them an eager following. Democracy in Germany might have been possible, in spite of the economic distress, had the process of education been laid on a better foundation. Had the changes been more evolutionary and less revolutionary in 1918, the events of September 1939 would not have come.

An example of rapid transformation by means of thorough and intensive education is to be found in the new Turkey which has with amazing speed been transformed from an Eastern despotism into a modern republic modeled after the democracies of western Europe. Turkish statesmen and educators were sent to England, France, and Switzerland to study the systems of these countries before the change was introduced into Turkey. The general opinion among critics of the new Turkey is that Atatürk was a dictator who reduced his country to the status of dictatorship rather than of a republic. The writer, after personal observation in the new Turkey, feels convinced that this is an erroneous view. The Turkish constitution became effective with the approval of the state assembly which elected Mustapha Kemal Pascha as the first president of the republic.

This constitution guarantees civil liberty, equality before the law, freedom of religion, freedom of assembly, and protects the rights of minorities. It is true that the education of the older generation to the new forms was achieved through radical and even violent measures, which may at first sight appear as extremely dictatorial. Careful observation shows, that Mustapha Kemal Pascha was not a dictator in the usual sense of the term. He did not use his power for selfish, imperialistic purposes, nor did he change the youth into fanatic militaristic automatons, and he did not introduce the horrors of a secret police or a concentration camp. In the universities and colleges of Turkey one finds liberal professors from various countries inculcating on the minds of enthusiastic and deeply interested Turkish youth the principles of democracy and thus helping to lead Turkey to an intelligent and firm maintenance of these principles.

The development of democracy in the United States is perhaps the best argument in favor of the view that education is one of the most important factors in the establishment and continuance of democratic governments. The Constitution of the United States, drawn up as a protest against dynastic suppression, necessarily gives expression to liberal ideas. However, the democratic system of the United States has roots which reach far beyond the Constitution. The pioneer settler in the new world had, of necessity, to govern himself and as the frontiersman pushed westward he carried with him and strengthened the ideal of the importance of the individual. Even the limited powers granted to the national government by the Constitution seemed to many of them

as an unduly great exercise of authority and before the frontiersman accepted the Constitution, he demanded a guarantee that all powers which had not been surrendered to the central government were to be exercised only by the states—by the people of the states. The democratic ideals of the citizens of the United States is a heritage from the early settlers and to this heritage has been added the influence of large numbers of immigrants from Europe who found no favor in their home countries because of their too liberal ideals.

The United States has, indeed, a splendid record

of democracy, but to insure the future stability of her democratic ideals, she must do more than harken to the past. Undoubtly her democracy will be put to the test before the close of the present century, probably in the next years. Whether or not democracy is to endure depends upon the education of her citizens and in their exercise of its fundamental principles. The greatest enemy America has to face can be found in the ignorance and incompetence of her citizens; the future will show if she will be able to defeat these enemies and make democracy secure.

The Census: Social Yardstick of America

GROFF CONKLIN

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Every ten years since 1790, the United States Bureau of the Census has "stopped" America in its tracks and has taken its picture. In 1940 the sixteenth such portrait is being taken, and it will in all probability be the most detailed and illuminating photograph of the whole series. For as America has grown, so have its problems; and its problems are as much a part of its picture as are the individual components of people, activities and resources which make it up.

Consider, for instance, the problems of America to which census data are interpretative keys and factual analyses! From simple geography through old-age security, from the growth of cities to the growth of unemployment, the census facts provide the source material which measures and describes the problems, their extent and sometimes their possible solutions.

In geography, it is the Census Bureau which, in coöperation with local municipal and county governments, is measuring the last unmeasured land in the states. The Geographical Division has to prepare about 140,000 maps of the minor civil divisions of the country—wards, ranges, beats, gores, grants, patents, school districts, purchases, and a dozen more types of area measures. Many of these, especially in the west and the south, are still actually un-measured, accurately at least, and the Bureau is working with local agencies to get them surveyed for census purposes.

A different type of measurement that the Geographical Division is undertaking, which is really, rather, a re-measurement, is the establishment of what are called *metropolitan areas*. The metropolitan area is of special value in economic geography; for it embraces the population wholes which under the antiquated boundaries of modern urban areas actu-

ally make up a city and its many satellite communities. A place like Chicago, for instance, is, economically considered, much more than just Chicago. It is Evanston, Oak Park, and many other areas known as suburbs or outlying areas, all of which are dependent upon the city itself for some or all of its livelihood. Chicago proper had a population of 3,376,438 in 1930, and its satellites, 988,317, making a total of 4,364,755—the true size of the city as a social unit.

There were ninety-six such metropolitan areas in 1930, and the Census Bureau plans to add about fifty to the list in 1940. These areas are indicative of the type of purely geographical innovation which the Bureau undertakes in the process of doing a good job for the people of America.

Still another geographical measure of the Bureau is called the *census tract*. It is a custom of cities, considered as political rather than as social-economic entities, to change boundaries, revise wards, and make jerrymandered election districts on occasion, as the party in power falls and a new one comes in. From a viewpoint of accurate measurement, these changes in the units of urban areas are very bad. They leave business and industrial marketing agencies, governmental planning authorities and the like with no fixed areas to deal with. Therefore the Census Bureau has commenced, in collaboration with private or public agencies in the cities, to divide up the major urban communities of the country into fixed and timeless geographical divisions. They are small, unified, and as nearly equal in area and population as possible—and their bounds will never change. Planning agencies, from that of telephone and other utility companies clear through state or federal housing authorities and municipal street and sanitation departments, can use these tracts as real and perma-

nent units of measurement; and, of course, so can the Census Bureau in laying out its enumeration districts for the Censuses of Population and Housing.

So much for the simple geographical problem. But the Geographical Division of the Bureau is only a preparatory branch of the whole organization. Its major task is simply to plot America into tiny areas, nearly equal in population, which are just the right size for one Census enumerator to cover during his work of counting and questioning the country's inhabitants. As mentioned, there are approximately 140,000 such district maps, all drawn up in the Geographical Division; and in addition a complete series of county, city and minor civil division maps for the use of the supervisors of the enormous army of field enumerators for the census. The army will number about 120,000 in April, some of the workers covering two or more thinly populated enumeration districts; and the supervisors, area managers and assistants nearly a thousand more.

The census itself—what will it cover? What problems will it measure? How will it help teachers of the social studies? It is a fact that there is not one subject in the field of social or economic science which the census will not look in on. There are seven separate censuses being taken, this 150th anniversary year, as compared with the one simple and uninformative survey which composed the first census of population in 1790.

That first census, like all the ones taken since, was done under the authorization of the United States Constitution. The designers of that document experienced considerable difficulty in setting up the legislature of the new republic. Small states wanted representation to be equal for every state; large states wanted it proportional to each one's population. The solution was, as everyone knows, to give both small and large states what they wanted, by creating a bicameral legislature. The Senate was designed to be composed of two members from every state regardless of size of population; and the House was ordered to be made up of representatives from the states differing in number according as the numbers of the people differed.

The composition of the House therefore called for a census—a counting of the people—which would make known how many members in the House each state should have. The second section of the first article of the Constitution provided that "the actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct."

It took nine months to complete the field work of the first decennial census of population—compared with one month today. Only a couple of simple questions addressed to the heads of households only

were included. The population then was a little less than 4,000,000. Today it is estimated at 132,000,000! Using that enormous increase in population as an index, we can arrive at some comprehension of the increases in the complexity of our national problems.

The most important of all the seven major census activities of the Bureau in 1940 will be that which will measure the number of the people, themselves, their age, sex, color or race, marital status, education, citizenship, place of birth, place of residence today and five years ago, occupation, employment or unemployment, and income. It is as a result of this, the largest of the enumerations, that most light will be thrown on the nature of America's current situation, and most ideas for its improvement will be forthcoming.

What, exactly, will this census show? This cannot be predicted on the basis of actual figures until it is finished and the results are out. But in view of the results of past censuses, a general idea of its scope and its application to social problems can be arrived at.

The major problems confronting America, concerning the people directly, have to do with the declining birthrate, the increasing longevity of the people, and the consequent aging of the American population as a whole; the distribution of the people, and the problems involved in that: problems of urban overcrowding, rural-urban migration, sectional shifts of the people in search of work or health, and so on; the health of the people and the causes of its low estate—poverty, poor food, poor housing and the like; the death rate and causes of death; the question of occupations and employment, the technological displacement of workers, unemployment, and sub-minimum earnings for those employed; the matter of security for the people—security on the job, in case of illness, and during old age; the problem of the minorities, especially the Negro and the Indian.

Every one of these matters come under the purview of the "Census of Population." Every one is accurately measured by it; and since it is only by knowing a problem that one can attack it, the census is basic in any approach to improving the condition of the people.

The birthrate is something which is known with considerable accuracy even between decennial censuses, through the work of the Division of Vital Statistics of the Bureau. Here every single birth certificate signed by a doctor in every state of the country is sent, and the numbers of babies born in each state, county and minor civil division is computed every year, and for the nation oftener than that. We know that the birthrate itself has been decreasing rapidly ever since the world depression. About 2,200,000 more babies were born between

the years 1921 and 1928 than were born from 1929 to 1937; and the actual rate of birth has dropped from twenty-five per thousand population in 1915 to seventeen per thousand in 1937.

But that is not the whole picture. Even the actual death rate, which is also compiled by the Division of Vital Statistics, and which shows a decline of from 17.6 in 1900 to 11.2 in 1937, does not complete the story. The "Census of Population" itself, with its accurate and detailed figures on the ages of every person in the nation, is needed to show exactly what is happening from the point of view of the gross increase in the population. That increase is declining at a sizable rate—yet it would be faster were people dying as young as they used to; and if the death rate were larger than it is, there would be more to worry about.

There still is plenty to occupy population scientists' minds, however. Results of the "Census of Population" and of the studies of causes of death made by the Division of Vital Statistics show how far we are from having eliminated many unnecessary and highly dangerous causes of mortality—from tuberculosis to automobile accidents. Knowing the size of the death rates from these causes, the medical profession, public health authorities and students of traffic safety can, and do, combine together to try and evolve scientific methods of reducing or eliminating them. Public health authorities particularly find most of their source material in census data. The causes of too many deaths are still causes originating in poverty, poor sanitation, poor food and housing, and ignorance; and these are all things which the public health organizations of the nation can abate, as they have already started to do and are continuing to work on.

In addition to being born, living and dying, people do many other things! They must get educated, they must find work, they must move from place to place in search of jobs, or health, or livable homes. A new question on the population schedule this year is designed to uncover a broad quantitative picture of the motion of people within the country—a question which will ask of them their place of residence five years ago. Knowledge of the broad trends in internal migration will assist city, state and federal planners greatly in arranging for programs of rehousing, education, vocational guidance, relief, and many others. For instance, if the results of the question should show a decrease, or an insufficient increase, in the population of New England towns that once were busy textile centers, and the Southern states show an influx of people from those areas, some very valuable guideposts to national and state policy will have been erected.

Similarly for the movement of families from worn-out and uneconomical farms. Here the greatest

changes will undoubtedly be shown in the western states, where the great draughts and dust storms of the past decade have wrought their havoc. Whereas a hundred years ago the population was being drained out of the rocky and difficult New England farmland into the rich fields of the Mississippi Basin, today farmers are being forced out of their homesteads, either into cities or, as in California, into the great industrial farming areas where day labor is needed. The internal migration question will show how extensive this movement has been, and will enable the social students and national planners to attack the problem more vigorously than ever before.

The census in the cities will also show the results of rural-urban migration, and will draw graphic pictures of needs for improved housing, improved social services, improved and extended educational, health and sanitation facilities. Without census data, usable plans for such future expansion would be impossible; and such plans are of direct and immediate import to every child and every teacher in the country.

The question of greatest immediate import, however, to both children and teachers, is the simple question of work and income. For the child—how to earn a living when graduated from school. For the teacher—how to improve his earnings, his security, his job. More space on the population schedule is given this year to the problem of occupations and employment than to any other subject. Data will be forthcoming on the numbers of men and women at work, and whether their work is full or part time; what their occupation is, and in what industry, business or profession; how many are unemployed, and for how long; how many are on special government relief work; and (for a five per cent sample of the people only, but a sample sufficiently large for statistical purposes) how many people are working at occupations for which they were not trained, and whose training is thus going to waste. Lastly, information will be obtained on the earnings from wages or salaries of every working person in the country.

The results of this mass of data are nearly incalculable. Material will be presented for the first time showing exactly what the economic situation of the American people is. The exact numbers of the unemployed will become known, thus, answering once and for all a question which has agitated different factors of the people and has made very difficult the establishment of sound procedures for eliminating the evil of unemployment.

The earnings of those who are employed will also become known, and the sub-minimum incomes of millions of workers will be revealed, showing the need for improved wages in innumerable sectors of industry and business. The question on earnings, new this year, has aroused considerable debate among

Congressmen and elsewhere; it is considered by some an invasion of one's private rights to have to answer it. Teachers of social studies will be able to answer that opposition without any difficulty, for they know better than most the need for accurate data on incomes. The nation has been struggling for a century or more with an enormous problem of poverty, of insufficient wages, and of the evils stemming from poverty. If an accurate diagram of national income, broken down into small classifications of graduated size of money earnings, can be prepared from the results of this question, the people will for the first time have an opportunity to attack the problem of poverty on the basis of known facts, and can attain realizable solutions with such facts.

Of equally great importance, in this section on employment and income, will be the data on occupations. Teachers are constantly being asked for advice on what courses to take in order to prepare for earning a living after leaving school. The material on occupations, when studied in comparison with the occupational data of past censuses, will show the shifts in types of work, which industries or occupations are becoming obsolete, and which are growing. Not only the teachers themselves, but schools, school boards, and special vocational guidance and training organizations will be assisted by this information, and will in turn be able to advise today's boys and girls what they should do to try and earn a living.

A special emphasis in this population study is placed on the problem of the Negro. The Bureau of the Census issues a special volume of Negro Statistics, which contains tables indicating the situation of the colored people and how it compares with the rest of the nation. The Bureau is the only source of such data in America; and if anything is to be done to try and improve the Negroes' conditions in the agricultural south and the industrial north, it will have to be on the basis of these census statistics.

Another new question on the population schedule has special interest to the teaching profession, and to teachers of social studies in particular. That is one dealing with education. There are, in fact, two questions on the subject: the first asking whether the person being questioned has been attending school during the month previous to the census month of April; this is similar to the question asked in previous censuses. The second query however is new, and replaces one on illiteracy which has been dropped. Illiteracy has practically disappeared among children of school age in America, and has ceased to be a problem among the people as a whole. Therefore in its place appears a query on the number of years of school or college completed. Although the result of this question will be of relatively little value in

the schoolroom, it will—or should—have the effect of increasing schoolrooms in many sections of the country! For it will show where in America the average of school attendance is lowest, and thus where the need for new schools and extended educational programs is greatest. Information of that sort is of enormous value to the teaching profession, of course. And while the decrease in number of children born during the '30's, previously referred to, means a decrease in number of children attending school in the '40's, the data on the extent of education among the people of America should more than counterbalance the decrease by bringing about changes in educational laws requiring longer attendance at school for those already there. That, and the need for smaller classes and for new school buildings to replace obsolete structures, should kill once and for all any ideas in the minds of school boards or state legislatures that educational budgets should be cut as a result of the decrease in gross number of children to be educated.

Reference has previously been made to a question to be asked of a five per cent sample of the American people. There are in all six major questions in this sample, questions which because of the size of the main population schedule itself and the lack of sufficient funds to extend it, could not be asked of the whole people. One of them will uncover data on the efficiency of social security programs in the states. The extensiveness of the federal and state social security coverage to date is only vaguely known; and as a result of this sample census a much better statistical average of insured people will be revealed. Social security is one of the crying needs of the great majority of the American people—health, maternity, unemployment, and old age insurance. How effective the Federal social security program has been, and how well the states have cooperated with it, will be learned from the results of this sample question.

The Census of Housing, most intimately related as it is to that of population, is being taken for the first time this year for the very good reason that so little is accurately known about the conditions of the homes we live in. All that is known is that there are millions upon millions of sub-minimal standard dwellings, housing the poor of this country. One of the keys to a future rise in American prosperity is a campaign to improve the condition of the nation's existing inadequate dwelling units, and to extend them by building new low-cost homes for workers and farmers who cannot afford to buy new homes under the present extremely expensive and inefficient methods of building.

The Census of Housing will result in detailed statistics on the age, size, condition, and financial status of every one of the 32,000,000 dwelling units

in America. The questions asked include the following: the number of rooms in each unit and the number of people living in them—thus presenting statistics on overcrowding such as we have never had before; the age, exterior materials, and need of repairs of the dwellings; the types of water facilities, bathing and sanitary fixtures and methods, and lighting, heating, cooking and refrigerating equipment and fuels; the presence of a radio; and the estimated value of each home, together with its estimated rental value. A final section of five questions on the housing schedule covers the mortgage aspects of each owned home not on a farm (farm mortgages are covered by the Agricultural Census). These financial questions will uncover extremely important data on rates of interest and frequency of payments, on size of mortgages, and on the holders of the mortgages.

The value of this housing material will be amplified by studying it along with tables from the Population Census, so that coordinations between mortgage payments and average incomes for certain classes of people will be possible and estimates of the load of home expenses as a proportion of income will be achieved. Similarly, the question on rents paid will reveal such information for the renter.

The use of this mass of data in social planning and study is immeasurable. One of the reasons for the wretched health and lack of ambition, the spread of crime and of disease, among the poor is the horrible condition of their homes. Plans for the expansion of public mass housing programs and for the broad development of inexpensive private home building undertakings have been held up for decades in this country because of the absence of sufficient data on the condition of the existing housing plant. In all probability the results of the Housing Census will reveal such an accurate and detailed picture of the impoverished homes of millions of farmers and workers that an immediate impetus to new building will result, and consequently improved employment and improved business conditions will ensue.

Further, the Housing Census is expected to be of value to cities in their development of plans for expansion of public health offices, transit facilities, educational plant, and the like. In the schools alone it should be of use, if only as a method whereby teachers can find a practical example with which to explain to their pupils the needs and deficiencies in America's economy.

So much space has been given the Censuses of Population and Housing, as compared with the other five censuses, because they are the most important of them all, so far as the people themselves go. The balance of the censuses however are of very great value in the social studies, in as much as they cover nearly every type of activity and resource of America

and its people. The other Censuses, of Agriculture, Business, Manufactures, Mines and Quarries, and Irrigation and Drainage, all deal with how the people examined in the first two censuses make their living. They survey the economic activity of the country from the point of view of the social organisms composing the various units of production, from corporations to farms, from mines to retail grocery stores and shoe shining parlors. Some of them—the Censuses of Business, Manufactures, and Mines and Quarries,—have been under way ever since the first part of January, and have involved the employment of over 6,500 special enumerators in addition to these to be used in the April censuses, which in addition to Population and Housing, include the Censuses of Agriculture and of Irrigation and Drainage.

The Census of Agriculture is taken every five years, and that fact is a standing proof of the importance of agriculture in our social fabric. The farm is not only the source of our supply of food, but also of some of our major problems. In order to assist the farmer to solve some of these problems—overproduction, heavy mortgage load, low prices, inadequate equipment, worn-out soil and so on—the Department of Agriculture and the Bureau of the Census in collaboration have worked out one of the most detailed and extensive questionnaires ever used in a census. There is a total of 230 questions on this schedule, though no particular farmer will have to answer more than 170, certain questions being omitted in the special forms for different sections of the country. The results of the census, in terms of social analysis and productiveness of concrete results, have in the past been so comprehensive as to form the basis of nearly the whole farm program of the federal and state governments; there is reason to believe that the new census will be even more useful.

The close relationship between farm problems and those of labor, industry and the American people as a whole is fairly obvious. To have the problems and their relationship illuminated as they will be by this farm census is to be half way towards solutions of them. The problem of overproduction is not only susceptible to alleviation by federal subsidy, but also by sound advice on crop variations; and the crop information collected by the census is basic in preparing such advice. The mechanization problem, whereby the small farmer is constantly being squeezed lower in the economic scale while the larger agricultural units prosper by means of increased use of machinery, can be approached through census data by a number of avenues. Coöperative buying, farming and selling; the development of small machines for small farms and the financing of the purchase of such equipment by cheap Federal money; these and many other methods become possible, once the question is clearly understood.

For schools throughout the nation, and especially those in rural areas, interpretation, explanation and discussion of the farm problems through the data of the Agricultural Census become of paramount interest. Children can be made to feel the immediate importance of the problem to their own welfare by explaining to them the importance of food, then the importance of the producers of food, and finally the importance of the welfare of these producers, so that they shall be able to raise food economically, scientifically and securely.

The Census of Irrigation and Drainage is a somewhat specialized offshoot of the Census of Agriculture. It has most use for the state and federal agencies interested in land reclamation projects, and for the industries that supply the equipment for such projects. But it too can be brought home to school pupils by showing them the correlations between increase in population, size and necessary consequent increase in area of land needed for crops. The Census of Irrigation and Drainage, which covers only large projects serving five or more farms, is taken every ten years; but on the farm schedule itself appears a question on irrigation projects within each farm; that is asked every five years.

The last three censuses, all under way since January, cover the story of America's business and industry. The Census of Manufactures is taken every two years, for of course manufacturing is the very basis of national prosperity, and accurate data concerning its progress is constantly needed. Similarly, the Census of Business, though one of the newest undertakings of the Bureau, is taken frequently. The first Census of Business was taken in 1930, and there have been three since then—in 1933, 1935 and 1937. In all probability it too will continue to be biennial. The Census of Mines and Quarries however is decennial only, largely because interim figures on the subject are constantly being collected by the Bureau of Mines, not a part of the Bureau of the Census.

If agriculture is basic to the very existence of every living American, since it is their source of food supply, business and industry ("industry" comprising both primary mineral extraction and the manufacture of raw materials) are the keys to national prosperity. Depressions arise rather in the complicated workings of our industrial society, than from the natural circumstances of harvest failures, as used to be the case. Farm income has its effect on national prosperity, without doubt, but farm income varies as industry prospers, rather than the other way around.

Therefore, for social students and for teachers of the social sciences, the analysis of industrial America is of paramount importance. The one and only basic source from whence can come the materials

for such a study is the Census Bureau. Under a competitive society there is no impetus for industry to examine itself—on the contrary, it tends to be secretive. Moreover, in a country as large as ours, neither business nor industry can have the time, the funds, nor the patience for self-analysis. The job belongs to the Bureau of the Census; and that is why the surveys of production and distribution are taken so frequently.

What are the major results, of value to the social scientist, which accrue from these censuses? They are too many to discuss at length in an article of this scope. The most important have a close similarity to the results of the population census; after all, people run business and industry, and are in a sense the subject of the production and distribution censuses just as they are of the population study. However, there are some additional problems that are of great and growing importance.

The question of monopolization, which leads to the gradual elimination of smaller units in manufacturing and in distribution is one problem. The question of increasing mechanization, which leads to the gradual elimination of workers and the consequent increase of unemployment, is another. Obsolescence of older industries, arising of new industries, these also create new problems and new possibilities of achievement by the schools. Costs of production, and distribution are of extreme importance in a society where no one, or practically no one, is able to live directly off the land; and of these the most important is distribution. The census studies distribution in a more detailed and more basic fashion than any other organization in the country.

Conditions, quantity and income of labor are other factors of industry and business which the Census analyzes. Not only for the workers as such, but also for professional people, white collar salaried employees, independent business men and the conditions of industry are of basic importance. The censuses mentioned analyze the labor problem in great detail, showing the number of employees in each branch of industry, their average wages or salaries, their average hours of work, and trends during the year over or under the norm of total employment in each kind of industry. Comparisons of Censuses of Business and Manufactures between 1930 and 1940 will show innumerable changes in employment, all of the greatest importance in a study of American economy.

On the broader view, the whole question of monopoly shows up very accurately through the census returns. Ordinarily, monopolization, or at least partial control of a particular industry, means increased efficiency and consequently lower prices. Yet the costs in unemployment, in mortality of smaller units, and in the possibility of high prices resulting from

the absence of competition, all are counter-arguments to the pro-monopolists: and all are revealed in census statistics. It should most certainly be a function of the teaching of the social sciences to examine this problem, at least on a survey basis. Census data offer perhaps the simplest way of getting at such a survey.

Similarly for mechanization. When one realizes that production of copper has jumped in value approximately twelve times between 1902 and the present in the state of Arizona alone, while the number of workers has increased less than five times, one can understand what is meant by mechanization. Or take the magnificent new steel mills, one of which will with a handful of workers do the job that hundreds and even thousands of men were needed to do previously. The effects of mechanization on employment can only be measured through census data; and those effects are certainly one of the outstanding problems of our modern economy.

Within the fabric of the distribution system, other factors are at work which call for the earnest study of social scientists, teachers and budding students. What is the effect of the chain store, the super-market, the big department store, the manufacturer's distribution outlet, upon the retail or wholesale business of the country? What is happening to the old country store? How are new methods of distribution, such as mail-order or house-to-house sales, cutting into the business of the established retail or wholesale establishment? What are the conditions of workers in this field—the incomes of small storekeepers, the wages or salaries of salesmen, the commissions of men working on a percentage basis? How many once-independent storekeepers are being forced into the ranks of the wage or salary earners by the weight of Big Business upon Little Business? What is the extent of coöperative buying and selling, and what is its future in America? These and a hundred

other questions are susceptible of analysis through the complicated returns of the Census of Business.

There are over 3,000,000 business establishments in America—indeed, there are probably nearer 4,000,000. Building contractors, tailors, filling-station operators, grocers, department stores, laundries, motion picture theatres, tourist camps, a hundred and one types of wholesalers, a thousand and one types of retailers, and service businesses. One of the things the Business Census is covering in 1940, which it has not included previously is the amount of installment debt outstanding in personal finance and other loan companies. The ratio of installment debt to average income and average rent or mortgage payment will be extremely revealing on the extent to which America's lower two-thirds (those earning \$2,600 per family or less) have gone in hock to keep themselves alive.

In all probability a study of America's business economy is above the reach of the average grade school pupil. But if it ever is to be brought within their reach, the simple, graphic and accurate tables of the Census of Business will do it.

The solutions of the problems which beset America rest in the development of an educated, intelligent, socially responsible and alert electorate. Nothing else, in the end, can smooth out the path which our industrial society is taking. Such a people can get their training in responsibility and in social awareness only through an early, constant and thorough education in social studies. The teachers of those studies know that; and if this article will have given them some leads to the getting of new and interesting and accurate material with which they can present their subjects to their young charges, it will have done the job it set out to do. The census is America's social yardstick. Let it be used—and used most of all by those who will derive the largest benefit from the results of its use—the younger generation.

The National Nominating Conventions in the Classroom

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Dramatization is secondary only to observation or participation in the real thing. Since the National Nominating Conventions usually occur too late in the school year¹ for class observation, the

¹ Republican Convention June 24, 1940, at Philadelphia. Democratic Convention July 15, 1940, at Chicago.

writer has for several years been bringing the nominating conventions to the classroom.

In as much as modern education attempts to create life situations and the drama ensures pupil interest and enthusiasm from all types of pupils, the effort seems worthwhile. It has occurred to the writer that

other teachers of junior and senior high school history and government might be interested in the successful experiments that have been made in Ravena High School.

In presenting to the class the idea of holding a convention, naturally the question arises as to which one of the conventions to hold. In large schools perhaps both conventions could be held by different classes. Although the writer has found it much easier to conduct the convention of the political party not in control of national affairs at the time, the choice of conventions is left to a vote of the class.

In dealing with large classes or groups it is wise to select a committee to make plans for the convention. This committee should act as the National Committee which, with the instructor will make the necessary plans for the convention. While these plans are under way in the committee, the class should be busy reading materials on the convention, its methods and procedures. The writer has included a brief bibliography for the teacher from which material for the pupil may be selected.

Having decided by vote of the class which of the two conventions is to be held, the pupils must then decide upon the states they are to represent. This may be done by drawing of the names of the states or by having the teacher assign the states in alphabetical order beginning with Alabama. Thus in either case the large states will fall to students entirely by chance. Each pupil will now be ready to make his State standard and learn the number of votes to which he is entitled for the convention.²

The next problem is the choice of a city for the convention. This selection is made by the National Committee. At this point close correlation with the English teacher is desirable as each pupil may now write a letter to the National Committee urging the choice of the principal city in the state he represents. Pupils representing the smaller states usually write their letters in support of one of the larger cities in their section of the nation. This letter-writing project affords excellent opportunity for research, composition, and letter-writing technique. In Ravena High School the preparation and writing of these letters was used as motivation for the introduction of the business letter to the class. The interest and response was immediate, the results encouraging. In the selection of the city by the National Committee the letters were a deciding factor.

As the interest and enthusiasm in the convention becomes increasingly evident pupil leaders appear. Spontaneously they begin to line up votes and to

prepare the nominating speeches as well as seeing to it that sufficient seconding speeches are prepared.³ Pupils who are less adept at speaking or writing find themselves making large posters and banners for their favorite candidates. There is something for every one to do.

A few days before the time set for the first meeting of the convention, the National Committee announces the names of the members of the four standing committees:

- (1) The Committee on Credentials
- (2) The Committee on Permanent Organization
- (3) The Committee on Rules and Order of Business
- (4) The Committee on Platform and Resolutions

At the same time the National Committee announces the call of the convention. These are announced by posting them on the class bulletin board. The committees, consisting of three or more students, are selected by the pupils composing the National Committee with the advice of the instructor.

The committees are now ready for work. Each committee meets after school with the teacher as an advisor. The Credentials Committee prepares the temporary roll of the convention by listing each pupil with the name of the state or territory that he is to represent and the number of votes to which he is entitled.

The Rules Committee draws up a set of rules based upon the rules of the National Convention of one of the major parties. These are modified for classroom needs. An example is the following compromise rule which was adopted recently after lengthy convention debate concerning the vote of absentees:

In the absence of a state's delegation the votes of that state may be cast by the National Chairman if authorized by a written statement. This shall apply for the first day of absence only.

This committee is also responsible for providing an order of business, copies of which are prepared by the class for individual use in following convention activities.⁴

To the Committee on Permanent Organization falls the task of selecting the officers of the convention. These choices are based upon the following principles:

² This information may be secured from the newspapers or by writing the National Committees; Republican National Committee, 718 Jackson Place N.W., Washington, D.C., and Bureau of Publicity, Democratic National Committee, 766 National Press Building, Washington, D.C.

³ The Sunday issue of the *New York Herald Tribune* is featuring a series of articles on the personalities prominently mentioned for the Republican and Democratic Presidential nominations. (First article appeared in Section II, February 4, 1940.)

⁴ See model program at end of this article.

1. The chairman should be a boy or girl who has the respect of the class and ability to preside over the convention.

2. The temporary chairman and "Keynoter" is selected for his ability to make "an extravagant, flamboyant address in which the orator holds up to withering scorn and scathing denunciation the supposed sins and shortcomings of the opposition party, and by way of contrast extols the virtues and achievements, real or imaginary, of the perfect party—his own—and calls upon the members to unite in defeating their opponents and saving the nation from impending ruin."⁵

3. The other officers of the convention⁶ are selected from among those pupils who have not become leaders of the various forces nominating candidates. Thus encouraging greater pupil participation.

Perhaps the most difficult task is that of writing the platform. The committee may discover through reading and discussion the subjects upon which the members wish to commit themselves and their classmates. Most frequently there will be a minority report. Here the guidance of the instructor is most important. It would seem wise that the platform adopted be within the comprehension of the pupils and that it grow out of pupil opinion based upon reading, common knowledge and discussion rather than adult influences.

Throughout the entire project the teacher should be the guide, the director, or advisor. The writer has experimented in teacher participation which with groups of less able students seemed to work successfully. Generally the pupil conducted convention is much more satisfactory.

During a regular class period immediately preceding the actual dramatization of the convention the instructor may explain in lecture form the background of the convention. How the convention idea originated,⁷ the National Committee and its functions, the apportionment and selection of delegates, the choice of the Convention City, the functions of the four standing committees, the reports to the convention, the vocabulary and parliamentary procedure in nominating and balloting for the presidential nominations,⁸ are subjects which adequately cover the convention background for the child. This will then be followed by general class discussion which is usually both intelligent and enthusiastic. It may be that a portion of a class period should be given

over to the study of parliamentary procedure. The pupils who are to be the officers of the convention may consult copies of the *Proceedings of the National Conventions* to learn the language and technique of convention procedure.

When the convention is finally called to order, each session will take up the first part of the class period. This may then be followed by class discussion of what has taken place, and of the plans for the next session.⁹

As each chairman, in turn, presides over the convention, a member of the industrial arts class may present him with a gavel which has been made by him as that student's contribution to the convention.

With the reading of the reports and their adoption genuine enthusiasm becomes evident. Pictures, posters, banners and applause are in order. The standard of each state and territory may be seen on the pupils' desks. Debates, minority reports, motions and compromises are the order of the day as the chairman uses his gavel frequently. Often adjournment or recess is necessary to arrive at a suitable compromise.

The nominating speeches may now be presented. The unfortunate boy or girl representing Alabama is usually in difficulty as each pupil quickly learns that if "Alabama yields to California" or another state, then that state may present its candidate first. The nominating and seconding speeches are the result of careful and sometimes difficult research, but above all they reveal the spirit of the convention. As each speaker hurls the name of his candidate before the convention the enthusiasm of the pupils must be governed according to the circumstances under which it is held. When the roll call is finished and the candidates have all been named, the first ballot may usually be taken followed by adjournment to the next day.¹⁰ From this point on the convention may continue until some candidate is chosen, which generally does not go beyond six or eight ballots. This, of course, is followed by additional speeches placing in nomination candidates for Vice-President and the balloting for that nomination. These speeches may be directed into the hands of those few pupils who by this time may not have become active in the convention.

When the convention finally adjourns amidst the resolutions of thanks and appreciation, a teacher may feel that he has indeed brought to boys and girls something of the spirit of the National Convention, and that they may therefore better understand this remarkable political institution which for more than

⁵ David Hutchison. *The Nomination of the President and Vice-President*, p. 12.

⁶ Roll call clerks, reading clerks, tally clerks, doorkeepers, etc.

⁷ See Thais M. Plaisted, "Origins of National Nominating Committees and Platforms," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXX, 199. (May 1939.)

⁸ It might be convenient in some cities to invite a delegate to one of the major conventions to present a word picture of his experience to the class.

⁹ Undoubtedly the class discussion will result in the discovery that certain facts and ideas should be recorded in their notebooks.

¹⁰ Such ballots may be reproduced by mimeograph with great effectiveness.

a century has been the regular means of placing before the American public its candidates for the Presidency.

In addition to the immediate values of stimulating the imagination, arousing the emotions, furnishing a vehicle of self-expression, and creating pupil interest in the learning process, it affords an opportunity to train pupils in public speaking, in parliamentary procedure, as well as giving them another opportunity to discuss the affairs of the day.

While the experience of the writer in dramatizing the National Conventions has been entirely in the junior high school, there is every reason to believe that all the objectives sought in this project may also be obtained on the senior high school level. A recent model convention at Temple University¹¹ would seem to indicate the possibilities of dramatizing the convention among Senior High School people. Regardless of the approach it would appear that the students involved would become more intelligent observers of the National Conventions this summer.

SUGGESTED ORDER OF BUSINESS

First Session

1. Call to order by the National Chairman.
2. Reading of the Call of the Convention by the National Secretary.
3. Naming of the temporary officers.
4. The Keynote Speech.
5. Appointment of the committees.
6. Adoption of the Rules of the preceding convention.
7. Adjournment.

Second Session

1. Call to order by the temporary chairman.

¹¹ *Weekly News Review*, XVIII (March 18, 1940), 8.

2. Reports of the four committees
 - (a) Credentials.
 - (b) Permanent Organization
(Permanent chairman takes the chair).
 - (c) Rules and order of business.
 - (d) Platform (Probable roll call).
3. Adjournment.

Third Session

1. Call to order by permanent chairman.
2. Unfinished business.
3. New business
 - (a) Roll call for nomination for president.
 - (b) Seconding speeches.
4. Roll call for the first ballot.
5. Adjournment.

Fourth and other Sessions

1. Call to order.
2. Unfinished business
 - (a) Finish balloting for president.
3. New business
 - (a) Roll call for nominations for Vice-President.
 - (b) Roll call for balloting for Vice-President.
 - (c) Resolutions Committee Report.
4. Adjournment.

SUGGESTED TEACHER READING

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Proceedings of the Democratic National Convention, Quadrennially.

Proceedings of the Republican National Convention, Quadrennially.

The International Forum

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THE POSITION OF BELGIUM IN EUROPEAN POWER POLITICS

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Will Belgium become the arena of the present European conflict? It is a question of universal interest, but is by no means novel. The Belgians are as peacefully inclined as any people in Europe and have been less nationalistic and imperialistic than most, yet almost invariably they have been involved in the

great conflicts of western Europe.

Flanders was one of the battlegrounds during the Hundred Years War between France and England. Charles V and Frances I usually sought to settle their rivalry in the Italian peninsula, but finally they too turned to Flanders. In the next century, the

Spanish Netherlands were invaded four times by Louis XIV in his wars of conquest. He was the greatest offender for once again his troops fought in the Belgian provinces in the War of the Spanish Succession. Only a generation later, the French invaded the Austrian Netherlands, as they were then called, during the War of the Austrian Succession. The territory suffered as a seat of war during the wars of the French Revolution as well as those of Napoleon; Waterloo is only ten miles from Brussels. Although fortunate in avoiding hostilities in the Franco-German War of 1870, Belgium was the first scene of action in the World War.

Once more Europe is experiencing a contest between the Great Powers and again Belgium may become involved and may even be the principal battlefield. Why has this small country been the field of action in so many of the wars of Europe? Why has it been the lot of the Belgians to suffer acutely in numerous wars which were not of their making?

One does not have to look far to determine one reason for the unfortunate history of the Belgic provinces. The greed for territory and wealth by neighboring states has been a major cause. Belgium is the most densely populated state in Europe. It is blessed with abundant natural resources, being especially rich in coal, in fertile farmlands and in means of transportation. Always noted for its textile industries, it was second only to England in developing manufacturing during the Industrial Revolution. The Meuse River in the south and the Scheldt to the north are natural highways for commerce. Antwerp, located near the mouth of the latter stream, is one of the great ports of the world and serves as a natural outlet and inlet for the industries of North-western Europe. To supplement the rivers, the Belgians have long used an intricate network of canals. One reason, therefore, for the misfortunes of Belgium is the desire of the great neighbors to possess the rich, populous and strategic territory. The French have been the principal offenders in this regard.

A second reason for the frequent invasions has been the desire of the Great Powers to use Belgium soil to reach the enemy. To understand the advantages Belgium offered, one must examine the topography of western Europe. The common frontier of the French and Germans is hilly if not mountainous, the principal range being the Vosges Mountains. Other natural obstacles to invasion across the borderland are the Rhine and the Moselle rivers which cut gorges through the ranges, heavily wooded timberlands such as the Black Forest and a number of scarps. To nature's own defenses, man has added the strongest of fortifications. Today, there exist the West Wall and the Maginot Line, but the past generations also constructed fortifications which were considered practically as invincible. The military

strategists of Germany and France thereupon decided that an attack across the frontier was difficult and hazardous and looked about for a more promising route to use in carrying the war to the enemy. Their most frequent choice has been through Belgium and the inhabitants have suffered accordingly.

A flanking attack to the south has been one possibility considered by the strategists. The mountainous land of the Swiss makes a difficult terrain for a flanking attack, however, and the soldiers of Switzerland have been famed for their prowess since the Middle Ages.

To the north of the Franco-German border lie Luxemburg and the southern provinces of Belgium. The terrain here is similar to that along the frontier. The Meuse River, cutting through the Ardennes Mountains, forms great palisades. The Forest of the Ardennes is so dense that hunting the wild boar is still a sport and *jambone ardennais* remains a delicacy of western Europe. These obstacles prevent rapid movements of cavalry and infantry, and motorized units and mechanized equipment would probably fare worse.

Central Belgium, on the other hand, possesses no such natural obstacles. It constitutes a broad, level, crescent route from Paris and northern France to the lower Rhine, with only the Meuse River as a major obstacle. It contains numerous roads, highways and railroads which make for rapid transportation. The rich farmlands produce the food and the industries the supplies which invaders would need. Consequently, this is the route that most French armies have used in invading the German states as well as Holland. By the same token, the Germans, Dutch and British have used central Belgium as a springboard for the invasion of France. Nor is this means of attack much out of the way for French and German armies. A straight line drawn from Paris to Berlin passes through southern Belgium and the main railroad line joining the two capitals passes almost through the heart of Belgium.

Once in possession of the strategic and rich territory, a conqueror would hardly give it up voluntarily. The British and the Dutch have realized how dangerous to their safety the Belgian provinces could be if held by a great power. "Antwerp in my hands is a pistol aimed at the heart of England," Napoleon observed, and Holland would be in still greater danger if an enemy should possess the neighboring provinces. Consequently, Great Britain and the Netherlands have not been idle spectators but have resorted to force as well as diplomacy to prevent the acquisition of Belgium by a rival state.

The statesmen of Europe understood the peculiar conditions leading to the frequent invasions of Belgian soil. Nor were they long negligent in seeking

a means to make the provinces a buffer between France and her neighbors. As early as the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, an arrangement was reached by the Great Powers with the exception of Russia, whereby Dutch troops would garrison some of the principal fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands. The fortifications were intended first as a buffer between Holland and the aggressive Louis XIV.

The procedure did not prevent the French occupation of the territory a few years later in the War of the Spanish Succession. Thereupon, Britain and Holland determined to secure the right to garrison certain of the forts, then called the "barrier fortresses." With the return of peace, the Barrier Treaty incorporating the right was accepted by the Powers. The Austrian Netherlands, as the provinces were then called, were required to contribute an annual sum for their upkeep. The modified plan did not prevent conquest by France, however, for in 1746 Marshal Saxe drove the Anglo-Dutch troops out of Flanders for a time during the War of the Austrian Succession. With still other invasions during the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era, a new arrangement was sought. The Belgian provinces were transferred from Austria to the Netherlands in the hope that the enlarged state would constitute more of a buffer. The barrier forts were also to be maintained. The four Great Powers, other than France, contributed to their construction but the Netherlands was permitted to determine the details of their maintenance.

Much to the disgust of the four Powers, the arrangement was upset when the Belgians rebelled and drove out the Dutch in 1830. After the most trying negotiations in a lengthy London Conference, treaties were signed by the five Powers, the Netherlands and Belgium recognizing the independence and establishing the boundaries of the new state. Furthermore, the Powers decided that Belgium "shall form an Independent and perpetually Neutral State," and "It shall be bound to observe such neutrality towards all other States." The agreement was then placed "under the guarantee" of Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia in 1839. It was a rather indefinite guarantee for experienced diplomats to give in order to solve such a perplexing and perennial problem unless it was their intention to avoid more specific commitments. The only logical explanation for their action is that the framers of the treaties were purposely vague. Nevertheless, Belgians had their longest period of peace under that neutrality.

In the meantime, the Great Powers contributing to the support of the barrier fortresses signed in 1831 a convention with the new government of Belgium. The forts near the French frontier which could not be successfully defended by Belgium were to be razed so that they could not be occupied and used by an invading French force. The Belgian au-

thorities promised to maintain those not dismantled.

The military policy of the new Belgian government was unwise, however. Holland was considered the potential enemy in the first years of Belgian independence and the barrier fortresses were not preserved. Later when a system of defense from the French and German side was considered essential, modern fortifications were constructed about the cities of Antwerp, Liège and Namur. The garrisons, together with a field army, were expected to make central Belgium a barrier. Although well conceived, the plan of 1887 was not properly executed. The fortifications were allowed to fall behind in the race with the effectiveness of artillery. As a consequence, by 1914 they were obsolete. The army, likewise, was inadequate both in size and efficiency. The Belgian defenses were altogether insufficient for the vital task of defending Belgium until assistance could arrive.

The German strategists spotted the weakness and took advantage of the opportunity. The Von Schlieffen Plan, calling for a violation of Belgian neutrality, was adopted by the German Great General Staff of the Army. Following the plan as later revised by General von Moltke, the German armies were able in 1914 to execute the plan successfully. They drove through central Belgium in order to attack France. Neutrality, defended by a weak military force, had failed to make Belgium a barrier state.

At the Paris Peace Conference, the neutrality agreement was abrogated at Belgium's request. In its place, the protection of Belgian territory was later placed under the care (1) of the League of Nations, (2) of the French army through a military "understanding" the details of which were not divulged, and (3) of the signers of the 1925 Locarno Pact,—Germany, France, Great Britain and Italy. With the rise of Hitler, the scrapping of the Locarno Pact by Germany which rearmed the Rhineland and the failure of the League of Nations to protect China or Abyssinia, the Belgian government determined to withdraw from all military commitments and to pursue an altogether "Independent" policy. With the chance of war between France and rearmed Germany growing more likely, Belgians wished to be in alliance with neither side. Fortunately for the welfare of the state, the decision was made in time to avoid the hostilities that began last September. The new policy, announced in 1936, was reluctantly accepted by France and Britain which nevertheless continued their guarantees to protect Belgian territory from aggression.

The Reich authorities were pleased, of course, when the Belgians withdrew from the "entente" with France and Britain. In 1937, Germany also gave a most solemn promise to respect Belgian territory and to grant assistance to Belgium if it should be invaded. As far as guarantees are concerned, both sides

in the present struggle in western Europe have made far more definite promises to respect and defend Belgian territory than were made in 1839.

The Belgian policy of *Indépendance* is a more vigorous policy than was followed before 1914. The people appear to have learned their lesson. It is realized that to avoid the misfortune of remaining a periodic battlefield for Europe, they must form a more definite military barrier than formerly. Under the new policy, the Ministers instituted a vigorous military program. The effectives in the Belgian army when fully mobilized would probably number 600,000 or more. This army is alert, well organized¹ and a good percentage is well trained. The fortifications usually referred to as the Little Maginot Line, are new and their equipment and construction very modern. Of course the Belgians alone could not prevent a determined French or German invasion, but they appear able to delay any enemy and prevent a rapid conquest, thus giving time for the arrival of assistance.

The Belgians at the present moment are nearer a barrier between France and Germany than at any time in their history. Between the new Belgian armaments and the interests of its neighbors which have led to definite commitments to protect Belgium, the solution to the centuries-old problem may have been found.

Nevertheless, there is still a chance that Belgium may become involved in the present struggle if no early peace is arranged. It is possible that the allied Powers may make use of Belgian territory in the struggle against Germany. Such use would not be an open or avowed transgression. Some excuse or reason, such as the charge of a previous violation of neutrality by either Belgium or Germany would probably be offered. But the Belgian foreign policy is ably directed and the government is exerting every effort to avoid opportunities for such excuses. France and Great Britain have chosen to remain on the defensive in the west for the present, at least. That being true and not wishing to throw Belgium into the arms of the enemy, there is little likelihood of a violation from this quarter soon if at all.

Should Germany take the initiative it could act in Scandinavia or the Balkans. Sooner or later, however, Hitler will probably order an offensive in the west. If the principal attack should be directed against France, there will be a temptation to try the weaker Belgian and Dutch defenses rather than the French. That step would add upwards of a million men to Germany's enemies, and they would immediately be supported by the British army already in France. Furthermore, even if German troops suc-

ceeded in crossing the two states, they would then come up against the extension of the French Maginot Line which has been constructed opposite the Belgian border. The chances for a German victory through another von Schlieffen Plan do not appear to be as promising as in 1914.

There is the possibility, perhaps even the likelihood, that the Germans may take the offensive against the British rather than the French. Such an attack would, in all probability, be a concentrated naval and air campaign against the commerce, navy, naval bases, air ports and industrial centers of Britain. Most of the naval bases are far to the north in Scotland and on the southernmost coast of England rather than the eastern shores nearest to Germany. The industrial cities are concentrated in the west. To reach these objectives, the bombers which Germany has used so far in the war need the faster fighter craft as protectors. Germany's planes of the latter class do not have the range needed to reach all sections of Britain. Therefore, if the Reich forces should capture Holland and Belgium, the territory would offer air bases which would cut the distance to the English objectives about in half. The shores of the two small states could also shelter the German U boats and raiders.² Yet, the advantages of a successful invasion of Holland and Belgium would hardly be worth the attending risks, more particularly the additional million men in the Belgian and Dutch armies and the widening of the theatre of war which Britain and France desire.

The more logical choice for Germany would appear to be an attack against Britain which would carry less risk for Germany. Is it not more probable, therefore, that the Germans will attempt to bring Britain within reach of their bombers by building fast fighting planes which have sufficient range or else by building bombers which are capable of still greater speed and heavier armaments? The Reich is believed to be rushing the production of both types of planes at the present time. Many small submarines which could be used in the attack are also said to be in production.

Even though an attack of this sort is planned and Belgium is not involved at the time, its position would nevertheless remain precarious. That is to say, one is justified in expecting Belgium to be able to remain at peace for the time being and until one of the belligerents becomes desperate; but when that time comes, the reckless Power may then decide to take what slight chance there is of reaching the enemy territory through the use of Belgian territory. Therein lies the great danger for Belgium.

¹ The Netherlands and Czechoslovakia thought so highly of the organization of Belgium's frontier troops that they used it as a model for their own.

² A German attack against Belgium alone would offer less chance of success than the invasion of both Belgium and the longer and less defended Dutch frontier. A German conquest of Holland alone would in all likelihood bring in Belgium, too, for the Belgian position would then be extremely precarious.

The Grade Placement of Social Studies Materials

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The current tendency to require work in social studies of all pupils calls for a school program that expands to meet new needs. Educational statesmanship is necessary to arbitrate the conflict of proposals and counter-proposals concerning the social studies curriculum. The purpose of this article is to review the literature that suggests various approaches to the problem of grade placement of instructional materials.

The Fourth Yearbook of the National Council of the Social Studies (1934) took as its theme "The Social-Studies Curriculum."¹ No shortcut generalization can be superimposed on the several problems related to any method used in determining the level of difficulty of materials. Perhaps the presentation of two methods of approach, the speculative and the experiential, will indicate the need for an eclectic method. However, it must be admitted at the outset that these methods of approach are not exclusive categories.² The curriculum maker who places emphasis on speculation calls philosophy to his support, whereas one who believes in an experiential approach cites experimental data to support his contentions. One must be aware of the fact that such a discrimination is descriptive rather than logical. The speculative tends to deal with a traditional outlook, while the experiential attempts to confirm practices and their consequences on whatever appears to be more objective as demonstrated by scientific experimentation. Essentially both procedures hold as their goal the validation of similar or like objectives. In other words, one may be annoyed that he cannot work out a mathematical problem, yet he cannot doubt that a certain given answer is the true one.

THE SPECULATIVE APPROACH

Following the work of the National Council (1934), studies have contributed data pertinent to the grade-placement problem of social studies. Present practice and expert opinion were thought to be the major factors determining the level at which

materials are placed in the curriculum. Obviously, these factors and others have in turn had a reciprocal relationship. The evidence presented showed: (1) that the reading difficulty of most social-studies materials is too great for the present level of its use, (2) little appears to have been done regarding the optimum sequence in learning the social studies, and (3) some information is available relative to the difficulty of acquiring skills connected with the interpretation of cartoons, graphs, and maps. The major conclusion of Rankin's report emphasized the need of objective evidence and its interpretation in reaching decisions of grade placement.³

Three decades ago a Nestor of social-studies teaching began a most brilliant exposition of how history may be graded: "The theory that history as conceived in the higher grades of instruction and in scientific histories is practically without application to the problem of elementary instruction based in part upon the belief that history in this sense has no elementary aspects, that it cannot, like arithmetic or reading, be graded, and in part upon a belief that, even if grading were possible, the materials supplied by scientific history would not be of a character to promote the ends which have been prescribed by educators for history as a school study."⁴ Johnson believed that a unique paradox would occur, if such happen, when the objectives of historical instruction are refuted through instruction in history. Therefore, history as a social science very seldom adapts history as one of the social studies to the curriculum. "The kind of history that can be presented to the children is a matter to be determined by experiment." Can historical facts be presented in sequential levels of difficulty to the student? At one time Johnson suggested six criteria for possible arrangement:

1. Facts of history received through senses.
2. Linking past to present.

¹ Howard E. Wilson, *Fourth Yearbook: The Social-Studies Curriculum*, National Council for the Social Studies (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934), pp. i-v.

² Edgar B. Wesley, *Fourth Yearbook: The Social-Studies Curriculum*, National Council for the Social Studies (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934), Chapter III.

³ National Education Association, Department of Superintendents, *Fourteenth Yearbook: The Social Studies Curriculum* (Washington: National Education Association, 1936), Chapter VIII.

⁴ Henry Johnson, "The Problem of Adapting History to Children in the Elementary School," *School Review*, IV (November, 1908), 1-60.

3. Conceptions of how men thought and felt in the past.
4. Conceptions of collective facts.
5. Conceptions of relating cause and effect in history.
6. Historical facts are localized by when and where.

Later, a more refined statement of the degree of difficulty was given. These were epitomized in the "doctrine of natural tastes and interests" and the culture-epoch theory which, when applied to history programs, promoted beginning with that which is near in time and space and proceeding by gradual steps to what is remote. Thus learning was thought to be accelerated by beginning with that which is concrete and proceeding to what is abstract.⁵ The factor of interest in determining subject matter leads more to the teaching of social history at the junior high school level, while political and economic issues may be left to the senior high school and college.⁶

There is no agreement among social scientists and social studies teachers as to a division of labor for selected materials. "Does history for the citizen differ from history for the historian?" According to the best standards of current scholarship any social study taught in the secondary school courses must be good social science.⁷ The content of the social studies must provide the basis for making the world understood to the students.

The increasing diversity of social studies literature only intensifies the perplexity of its correct arrangement for teaching purposes.⁸ An overlapping and duplication of materials have followed the building of many topsy-turvy courses of study.⁹ Some thinkers¹⁰ have held that the needed disciplinary influence upon such a chaotic situation is a rigorously trained teacher capable of adapting much history to the present and future needs of the pupil.¹¹ Consequently, an objective interpretation of the social studies may clarify the subject matter content

and bring the student to a better understanding of teaching objectives.¹²

From the time of the Committee of Ten in 1892 to the recent works of the Commission on the Social Studies, sponsored by the American Historical Association, have come varied recommendations. Reports of the national committees have been most influential in guiding the selection and placement of curriculum materials. Several of the recent *Reports* are exhaustive enough to provide various approaches for "grading materials." Horn's most creditable contribution treats instructional equipment suitable in range of difficulty and depth of treatment for ability areas at each grade level. The improvement of reading along with learning in the social studies is a responsibility which must be accepted by teachers.¹³

NATURE OF LEARNING PROCESS PECULIAR TO SOCIAL STUDIES

Within the Kelley-Krey *Report* is found a succinct analysis of the learning process in the social sciences: "Psychology has concerned itself but little with what it calls the higher mental processes in the social sciences." Educational measurement has advanced little beyond the pioneer stage as related to the social studies. Suggestions are expressed which lend encouragement to definite research. Some of these suggestions are "stated almost with the force of definite conclusions," while others are "advanced only as conjectures which some years of teaching experience, observation, and attentive study have justified."¹⁴

How the nature of an idea is loaded with multiple meanings can be illustrated in bringing the child to an understanding of the concept "state." To describe the learning process, within the social science field, of state as a governmental division of the United States, no less than eleven meanings have been enumerated as bound around the concept "state." (The term "home geography" has been used by teachers to designate at least six concepts.) The very nature of ideas in the social sciences and social studies militate against any specificity as distinguished from mathematics. The following postulates are illustrative of a few rather singular characteristics of the social sciences:

1. The primary material of the social scientist is life itself over which he has very limited, if any, control.
2. Ideas gained from the observation of life all represent a range of variation.

¹² A. S. Turberville, "History Objective and Subjective," *History*, XVII (January, 1933), 289-302.

¹³ Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), pp. 18-22, 151-205.

¹⁴ T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), pp. 113-119.

⁵ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1917), Chapter II.

⁶ Bessie L. Pierce, "The Social Studies in the Eighth Grade," *Historical Outlook*, XVI (November, 1925), 315-331.

⁷ Elmer Ellis, Fremont P. Wirth and Others, "American History in Junior and Senior High School," *Social Education*, III (March, 1939), 191-196.

⁸ Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, "Approaches to History," *Political Science Quarterly*, XLIV (December, 1929), 481-497.

⁹ Felix H. Ullrich, "Aims and Objectives in Recent Courses of Study," *Curriculum Journal*, X (February, 1939), 84-85.

¹⁰ Carl Becker, "Capitalizing History in the School," *Education*, LIII (December, 1932), 199-201. See also Eugene C. Barker, "The Changing View of the Function of History," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXXIX (April, 1939), 149-154.

¹¹ Annie A. Kartoizian, "Methods of Teaching History through Biography," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (January, 1933), 14-18.

3. Verbal formulae to meet intellectual demands are coined too recklessly to be responsible to rigorous scholarship.
4. Learning is a constantly cumulative process only well begun by the time children leave the public school.¹⁵

Many references are made in various chapters of a recent yearbook to the need for growth in the understanding of language as a medium for the communication of ideas. This need is most urgent at the secondary level because of the forms in which ideas are expressed on the printed page. Teachers' experiences show that pupils are often inhibited in their effort to comprehend meaning because of the form in which the ideas are expressed. Among others, Gray urges that the understandings which should be emphasized in the upper grades and secondary schools are: "functional relationships within sentences and paragraphs; figures of speech and their significance in interpretation; the 'emotive' charge of the language used; and 'shifts' in meaning. Much research is needed to determine the specific types of understandings in the field of language that are essential in the interpretation of meaning and the methods by which they can be developed most effectively."¹⁶

THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH

The further development of a science of teaching depends on the cooperation of teachers, administrators, and specialists, all interested in the numerous investigations which are essential to its growth.¹⁷ Any coöperative program involves: (1) a scientific attitude on the part of the personnel, (2) familiarity with the results of past investigations, (3) an ability to see the relation of single investigations to the science as a whole, and (4) active experimentation with experimentations that now seem valid.¹⁸

Needed research has been reported by Jensen.¹⁹ "Research dealing with defined social studies materials and activities, presented uniformly at various grade levels and checked against child development factors, is nowhere available. Definitive research of this sort must be forthcoming if progress is to be made in this field." Problems for study cover a

broad range of difficulty and demand techniques of research ranging from the simplest classroom experiment to factor-analysis and elaborately planned investigations. As recommended in a *Report of the Regents' Inquiry*, coöperative research in the developmental levels of curricular construction by teachers must be continuous.²⁰ The "specificity" of this monumental study recommends itself to teachers generally and curriculum makers particularly.²¹ Wilson sets forth an exhaustive treatment, within the limits of a single volume, of major issues that are current in a number of educational systems.

TEACHER-PUPIL JUDGMENT METHOD

In most instances, suspected relationships between certain aspects of reading material and difficulty apply to readers in general. It has been reported how textbooks have actually formed the courses of study for teachers in the past.²² The textbook has remained, for the most part, the dominant influence in furnishing teaching materials. Because of the significance attached to textbooks it would be well to begin with the problems related to their use.

To determine what makes a book easy or difficult, one reasonable procedure is to gather the opinions of teachers about books used, make assignments, suggest related readings within the text, and evaluate the outcomes of reading.²³ In several instances writers have expressed confidence in the opinion of teachers.²⁴ This confidence seems well founded for ratings of experienced teachers whose estimates bear a close correspondence to the empirically determined difficulty of reading materials. Many investigators of reading difficulty, however, have preferred to combine the subjective estimates of teachers with the opinions of librarians, supervisors, publishers, writers, and other "experts" in the hope of refining judgments as to what makes a book difficult; while teachers themselves have expressed the need for a more reliable means of estimating difficulty than mere guess work. Some writers and investigators have concerned themselves with the types of reading materials that are related to the interests of the child at various levels of achievement.²⁵ Adult judgment

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 45-53.

¹⁶ National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook: Child Development and the Curriculum* (Bloomington, Indiana: National Society for the Study of Education, 1939), pp. 206 f.

¹⁷ Bess Goodykoontz, "Opportunities for the Classroom Teacher As a Research Worker," *School Life*, XV (May, 1930), 161-163. See also C. A. Jessen, "Needed Research in Secondary Education," *Office Education Bulletin No. 28* (Washington: Office of Education, 1937).

¹⁸ National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-Second Yearbook: Teaching Geography* (Bloomington, Indiana: National Society for the Study of Education, 1933), p. 177.

¹⁹ National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook: Child Development and the Curriculum*, p. 436.

²⁰ Howard E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938), Chapter IX.

²¹ Edgar B. Wesley, book review, *Harvard Educational Review*, IV (March, 1939), 258-262.

²² Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), Chapter II.

²³ Wm. S. Gray and Bernice E. Leary, *What Makes a Book Readable* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935), Chapter VII.

²⁴ Gertrude Whipple, *Procedures Used in Selecting School Books* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), Chapter VIII.

²⁵ Jean Piaget, *The Child's Conception of Physical Causality* (Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1930), p. 309 f. See also L. L. LaBrant and F. M. Heller, "Magazine Reading in an Experimental School," *Library Journal*, LXI (March, 1936), 213-217.

teamed with pupil tastes for reading has been practiced.²⁶ In one instance the variation of teacher-judged material compared with the criteria set up for final placement of materials indicated a general tendency among teachers to judge materials as less difficult than they actually were.²⁷ There are many graded book lists available. Some have been published on the basis of children's free choice of reading. The problem of variations in the progress of pupils in reading can be met in part by determining appropriate materials for given levels.

THE CLASSROOM CLINICAL METHOD

The actual use of reading materials under rather formalized classroom conditions is another method of determining levels of difficulty. This method is perhaps best suited to the usual teaching situation. In most secondary schools, at least those located in urban areas, records of students' I.Q.'s are at hand, and their achievements on standardized reading tests are available. Library resources are usually adequate for experimental material. Most teachers will probably desire to begin with selections taken from prescribed texts.

Several studies have been ruled out because of the manner in which selections were taken from the texts.²⁸ There is considerable evidence to indicate the advantages of extensive reading over intensive study.²⁹ Therefore, samples of materials should be made to incorporate all inherent narrative qualities that are usual for the whole work.³⁰ Certainly it would be wise to adopt one of the techniques practiced by authorities on reading. Having selected the experimental material, appropriate questions may be constructed to test the students' comprehension of the samples. The study or test materials are then mimeographed for class use. The interpretation of raw scores compared with school records have infinite possibilities. Strang has given a new impetus to clinical studies carried on with children in the same subject fields over a period of years.³¹

²⁶ Hollis L. Caswell, and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development* (New York: American Book Company, 1935), Chapter XI. See also Harold W. Traister, "The Effect of Adjustment of Materials on Pupil Accomplishment in History in the Middle Grades," Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1931.

²⁷ W. G. Bergman, "Objective and Subjective Placement of Supplementary Readers," *Report of American Educational Research Association* (Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1936).

²⁸ Herbert B. Bruner, "Criteria for Evaluating Courses-of-Study Materials," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (November, 1937), 107-120.

²⁹ R. S. Rice, "Extensive Reading Versus Intensive Textbook Study As a Means of Acquiring a Knowledge of Scientific Facts and Principles," *Journal Experimental Education*, IV (June, 1936), 376-402.

³⁰ Osie Overman, "An Investigation of Children's Interests in Historical Reading," Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1932.

³¹ Ruth Strang, "Estimating the Difficulties of High School

Perhaps the clinical type of investigation deals most adequately with complexities that are inherent in determining levels of difficulty. Jensen has described some of these factors as "... experiential background, including informal or incidental as well as formal teaching and learning; the degree of maturity as measured by chronological age, psychological age, mental age, social age and similar considerations; the degree of maturity as it exists today, as it is obtained under the best known conditions, and as it is effected by the ultimate potentialities involved; the rate and direction of growth; the interests; the needs, the socio-economic status; the degree of motivation; the attitudes; the methods and materials of instruction; the learning procedures; the difficulty of the material and activity to be learned; the objectives; the reading ability; and the modifiability of native ability."³² The most ambitious investigator certainly would never attempt to determine the levels of difficulty influenced by all these factors; the study of any one factor might well prove beneficial in many class room situations.³³

GROUP ANALYSIS METHOD

According to this method, the concept of difficulty is a mathematical one, established in terms of average reading score which a group of students of known ability is able to make when tested on a given selection. The cumulative concept of difficulty is made by certain structural or conceptional elements identified through an analysis of the selection. The degree of association between the occurrence of the various elements and the level of difficulty have been expressed by the coefficients of correlation and regression equations.

The findings obtained tend toward objectivity and are above the reproach of scientific methodology as far as they go. However, the very nature of the method prevents statistical treatment from going far enough. Both are limited to those elements which lend themselves to the quantitative analysis and statistical treatment, to the exclusion of other qualitative, intangible, and more or less subjective elements. To this extent both fail to give a true level of difficulty. Apparently, because of their quantitative exactness, these findings more than any others are open to misinterpretation. There is a tendency on the part of a great many people to misinterpret numerical relationships and describe all considerations of a few isolated elements as ultimate criteria,

and College Reading Material," *Report American Educational Research Association* (Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1938).

³² National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-Eighth Yearbook: Child Development and the Curriculum*, pp. 325 f.

³³ M. L. Altsteter, "Research Experimentation, and Improvement in the Techniques on the Part of Teachers," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XV (January, 1938), 211-215.

and then apply them (criteria) without qualification to all sorts of materials at all reading levels. Every instrument of prediction that is applicable only to the whole group suffers the disadvantages of not giving the proper attention to individual cases. The connecting of useful elements of difficulty into an instrument of prediction may have characteristics of a productive synthesis while responsive to systematic investigation.

The Lewerenz formula is essentially built upon the vocabulary content of materials. The vocabulary studies are considered as but part of the information needed in making a selection. Hence, undue emphasis should not be given to measure the vocabulary difficulty, vocabulary diversity, and vocabulary interest.³⁴

The basis of the technique for determining levels of difficulty and diversity is a 20" x 28" sheet. On one side of the sheet are the 500 most important words in the English language in an alphabetical arrangement with spaces for writing in other words. The other side of the sheet provides directions. The words in a sampling of 1000 running words are checked or recorded on this form. From the tabulation one may obtain for each alphabetical group of words: (1) the number checked in the 500 word list, (2) the words written in, and (3) the total number of words. Measures of vocabulary are obtained from these data. Norms have constantly been revised since 1935. It is reported that grade placements have a reliability of .93.³⁵

AN ADAPTATION OF THE LEWERENZ FORMULA

The Los Angeles City School District published in 1937 a cooperative evaluation of more than 2700 books of which some 700 were in the field of social studies. The range of grades in which the social-studies books were located by this method was between 1 and 15.8. The vocabulary difficulty was determined by the Lewerenz formula, which is said to give results comparable to those secured by standardized reading tests.

A similar technique was used to ascertain vocabulary difficulty and diversity. The study was begun with the selection of typical passages from the book to be rated.³⁶ (No explanation is given by Hall for his manner of selecting typical materials.) These were submitted to 300 students in the ninth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of Los Angeles high schools.

³⁴ Alfred S. Lewerenz, "A Vocabulary Grade Placement Formula," *Journal Experimental Education*, III (March, 1935), 236. By same author, *Textbooks and Instructional Materials Evaluated* (Los Angeles: Los Angeles City School District 1938).

³⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 1-7.

³⁶ Henry B. Hall, "Grade Placement of High School Texts in Social Studies," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIV (March, 1939), 161-168.

Wherever half the class showed comprehension, Hall deemed such a prerequisite sufficient to warrant using the text in that grade. He made no effort to use the same instructional procedures at various grade levels in developing an understanding of the concepts to be known by the pupils. Repetition of his work with this purpose should be of considerable value. In Malcomber's study a notable weakness is the failure to correct the scale of mental ages of two psychological tests.³⁷ Nevertheless, his work has suggestive worth that recommends a similar application.

THE WINNETKA FORMULA

More than a decade ago Vogel and Washburne, offered an objective method of gathering data to determine the grade placement of children's reading material. They held at that time the view that "every teacher has to face the problem of fitting reading material to children's reading ability."

In brief, they took a thousand-word sampling from the selected book. In that sampling was determined the number of words not found in Thorndike's (10,000) Word List. To this data was applied the following regression equation:

$$X_1 = .085X_2 + .101X_3 + .604X_4 - .411X_5 + 17.43$$

X_1 is the reading score needed to understand the text; X_2 the number of different words in 1000; X_3 the number of prepositions in 1000-word sample; X_4 the number of uncommon words (not in Thorndike) in the 1000; and X_5 the number of simple sentences in 75.³⁸

It appears that at one time this formula suffered from a prejudicial study.³⁹ There followed an evaluation of the formula that seems obvious in its implications.⁴⁰ The consequences of various appraisals brought about a new formula in 1938.⁴¹ An improvement of the formula was aided by the Shuttlesworth study.⁴² The authors estimate that a

³⁷ F. G. Malcomber, "A Placement Study in Secondary School Economics," *Journal Experimental Education*, IV (June, 1936), 353-359.

³⁸ Mabel Vogel and Carleton Washburne, "An Objective Method of Determining Grade Placement of Children's Reading Material," *Elementary School Journal*, XXVIII (January, 1928), 373-381.

³⁹ John T. Cramer, "Relative Difficulty of Junior High School Social Studies Texts," *Journal Educational Research*, XXVI (February, 1933), 425-428.

⁴⁰ Linwood W. Chase, "Determination of Grade Placement of History Material," *Journal Educational Research*, XXVIII (April, 1936), 593-596.

⁴¹ J. T. Phinney, "The Objective Selection of Curriculum Material in the Social Studies," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXV (March, 1934), 107-111. See also Edward O. Sisson, "Statistical Determination of the Social Science Curriculum," *Journal Educational Research*, XXVII (September, 1933), 41-45.

⁴² Frank K. Shuttlesworth, *A Critical Study of Two Lists of the Best Books for Children*, Genetic Psychology Monograph, Vol. XI, No. 4 (Worcester, Mass.: Clark University, 1932).

(Continued on page 219)

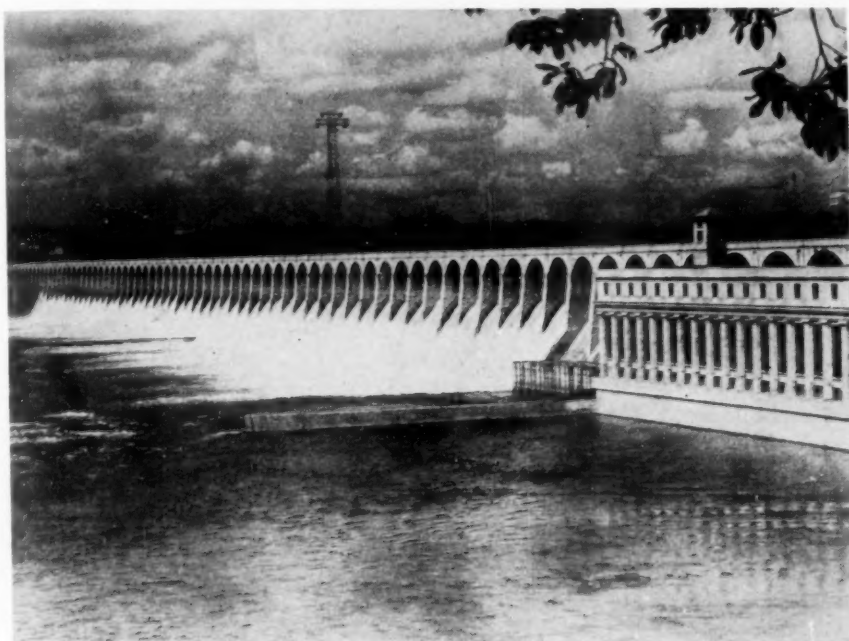
ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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SINCE THE WORLD WAR



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For many years the potential power of the Tennessee River in northern Alabama had been an object of interest and speculation. In 1918, President Wilson ordered the construction of the dam for war purposes; one aim was to aid in supplying nitric acid for military needs in place of Chilean nitrate of soda. The construction work was finished and the plant put into operation in 1925. Under the Roosevelt administration Congress created the Tennessee Valley Authority to produce and sell electric power to private corporations, states, counties and municipalities.

When the Mississippi River went on a rampage in 1927, it broke the protecting levees on its west bank from Illinois to Mississippi, flooded twenty thousand square miles of land, and made over two-thirds of a million people homeless. This picture shows the river after the levee between New Orleans and Baton Rouge broke during the flood. Army engineers set to work building improved levees, dredging the river channel deeper, and constructing a huge spillway above the city of New Orleans to drain the flood waters. Congress appropriated \$325,000,000 to carry out the work.



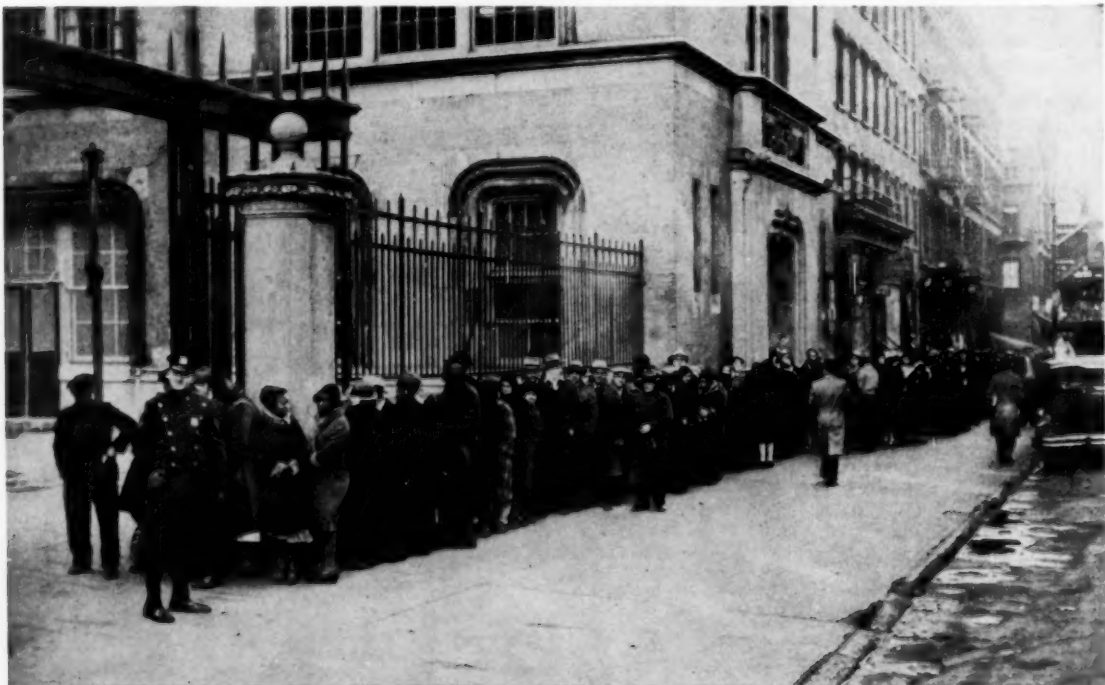
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SINCE THE WORLD WAR



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Few events of the period following the World War seized the imagination of the people as did the daring non-stop flight of the youthful Charles A. Lindbergh from New York to Paris in May, 1927. Late in 1927 Lindbergh made a goodwill flight to the nations of the Caribbean area, covering ten thousand miles without accident, and receiving the acclaim of everyone. The airplane shown in the picture is the one in which he made the famous flight across the Atlantic.



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The depression of 1929 and the following years produced an acute problem of unemployment. To cope with the problem the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was established in 1933 by which \$250,000,000 was granted to the states for relief purposes, and surplus food and clothing were bought and distributed to the unemployed. The bread line shown in the picture was taken in New York City, but similar conditions prevailed in all urban communities.

SINCE THE WORLD WAR



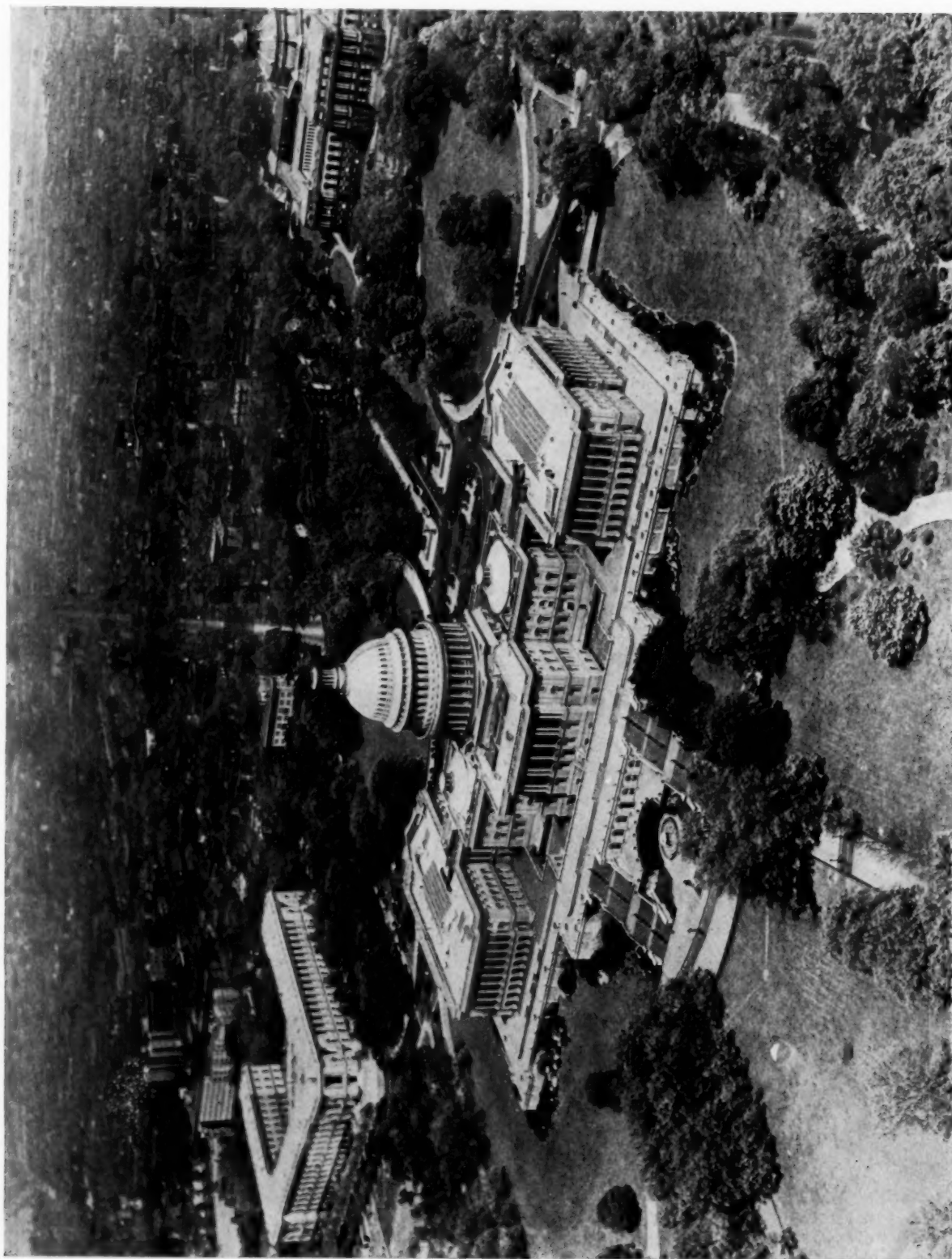
Under the Public Works Administration a division was organized to promote the clearance of slums and the erection of modern dwellings which could be rented at low cost. The illustration shows a Federal Housing project in Philadelphia.



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Under the Unemployment Relief Act of March, 1933, President Roosevelt ordered the organization of the Citizens' Civilian Conservation Corps. The aim was to put over three hundred thousand young men to work in developing the natural resources of the nation. The C.C.C. camps engaged in fighting forest fires, floods and plant pests, constructed fire lanes and forest trails, and planted trees in denuded areas. The picture shows the first group going to work in April, 1933, to clear up the brush in the vicinity of George Washington National Park near Luray, Virginia.

SINCE THE WORLD WAR



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Airplane View of the Capitol, Washington, D.C.

novice's first analysis of a book by using the Winnetka Chart for Determining Grade Placement of Children's Books requires four or five hours, but can be done in two and a half or three hours.⁴³

AN APPLICATION OF THE WINNETKA FORMULA

The method Washburne approves was used in a three-year study for recording reactions of almost 15,000 children, 258 teachers in 50 schools, 28 librarians, and 1000 book titles. For each of the 1000 titles there were data of 50 or more reactions of readers on each book: "(1) source of choice, (2) interest to which book appeals, (3) what the book made the reader feel like doing, (4) the range of chronological ages of all readers, (5) the most frequent chronological age, (6) range of mental ages, (7) most frequent mental age, (8) range of reading grade levels, (9) most frequent reading grade, (10) to whom the reader would give the book, (11) the reader's favorite kind of reading and other titles he has enjoyed

during a four-month period in a specific grade in school, (12) means used by the teacher to awaken interest in the book, (13) the means any pupil used to awaken interest in the book, (14) means used by teacher to capitalize individual reading, (15) means used voluntarily by pupils to capitalize individual reading, (16) teacher's vote as to pupil's reason for liking or disliking the book, (7) the pupil's vote as to reasons for liking or disliking the book."⁴⁴ Broening explains that information was provided relating to the reader's nationality, community stimulation toward reading for recreation, nearness to the public library, and available home libraries.

Since the formula gives information having a significant relationship to the data secured by Broening, it may, therefore, be applied in selecting books for free reading of pupils. A similar but modified technique might be adapted as an experimental pattern in determining the level of grade placement of other materials.

⁴³ Carleton Washburne and Mabel Vogel Morphett, "Grade Placement of Children's Books," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (January, 1938), 355-364.

⁴⁴ Angelia M. Broening, "Literary Merit and the Winnetka Formula for Grading Children's Books," *Report of American Educational Research Association* (Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1937), pp. 148-152.

Current Events

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and

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During the past decade, current events has become increasingly important in our ever-changing society and the methods and procedures used in their presentation have increased and widened in scope. We are here concerned first with the aims behind the inclusion of the study of current events in the high school; secondly, with the methods and procedures generally followed in the presentation of the materials to secondary school students; and thirdly, the results obtained from the study of current events from the standpoint of citizenship, guidance and adjustment to society.

Factually speaking, current events may find its place in a number of the courses given in the high school, such as history, economics, problems of democracy, commercial and industrial geography, and sociology, as domestic or foreign affairs and happenings may directly, or indirectly have bearing upon each or all of these courses. Therefore, it is the duty of every teacher of the social sciences to devote

as much time as possible to the consideration of current events, but without sacrificing the established course content material. In certain instances, the study and discussion of what is taking place in the world today will stimulate student interest in the classroom where other methods have failed and will arouse the student to want to ascertain what has happened in the past in relation to the topic being currently discussed. With this in mind adequate facilities should be available in the library and whenever possible in the home room, so that the student will not be forced to rely upon outside aids in gathering the needed information.

The teacher should give much thought to the preparation of current events period so that a friendly atmosphere will prevail and students will look forward to the discussion with interest and enthusiasm rather than with a feeling of discomfort and the desire to escape responsibility. The creation of this atmosphere depends much upon the teacher himself

and his desire and willingness to cooperate with the students in the preparation of topics and procedures to be followed during the period.

Whenever possible a social room, which has adequate seating facilities or a seminar room should be used during the current events period rather than the traditional classroom with its stationary desks because the use of such a room will generally have the tendency to develop initiative and response, for in these more pleasant surroundings the student will feel himself less a student and more a member of a socialized group.

Since every subject taught and every topic discussed should be based upon definite aims it follows that the teacher should have definite ideas in mind and aims in view when organizing the current events period.

These aims should include the following:

1. To teach students to read current materials intelligently.
2. To provide a basis for the interpretation of current social, economic, and political problems.
3. To create and promote student interest in community, state, and national affairs.
4. To provide for good citizenship by enlightenment concerning what factors tend to make one a good citizen.
5. To stimulate intellectual reasoning and research and the ability to assemble facts in an accurate fashion and to deduct conclusions therefrom.
6. To introduce a program through which desirable student interests and attitudes can be stimulated.
7. To stress the importance of the proper use of leisure time and to cultivate appreciation for the better things in life.

The methods for the organization of discussions of current events may be arranged under the following captions:

I. *Topical Basis*

1. Assignment of a topic to each individual student.
2. Assignment of a topic to a group of students.
3. Assignment of a topic to the entire group.
4. Individual choice of topics.

II. *Procedural Basis*

1. Student chairman appointed either by the teacher or elected by the group.
2. Teacher chairman.
3. Invited guest to act as chairman. One who has gained extensive knowledge of the topic being dis-

cussed from participation in business or government life.

III. *Basic Materials and Tools*

1. Current newspapers, magazines, periodicals, and books.
2. Slides and motion pictures to portray in a realistic fashion current happenings of the day.
3. Maps, charts, and authoritative reports.
4. Trips whenever possible to provide students with first hand information.
5. The radio may be used as a tool when, for example, leading business and government authorities discuss national problems which are of interest to the students.

As the high school students of today will be the citizens of tomorrow, it is essential for the preservation of the democratic principles in our country that the teacher keeps constantly in mind the aims of the current events period, for it is through these aims that students develop into good citizens. The presentation of prepared reports in class and the acting as chairman in a discussion group develops confidence, ability, poise, and willingness to participate in discussion groups, with the resultant effect that after formal education has ceased the student is prepared to participate in community life.

An opportunity of tremendous significance, which is generally overlooked by teachers who conduct current events classes is that both personal and occupational guidance may be advantageously conducted by arousing within the student desirable interests and attitudes which they have manifested during their adolescent years. Such a program, as suggested, will serve as an important supplement to the regular guidance plan of the school and will enable those conducting the guidance program to weave into an organized pattern the present and future potentialities of the individual.

Recent years have brought about extensive changes in our contemporary society and the individual now finds himself with more leisure time than the citizen of yesterday. Since the proper use of leisure time is essential to the well-being of the individual and society it will follow that if an appreciation of worthwhile reading has been cultivated during the high school course these will be a carry-over of these principles and appreciations into adult life. This training will inculcate the ability to read and weigh literature with tolerance and without bias, and will develop a spirit of understanding toward the problems of others which is so necessary in modern society.

The Social Studies Curriculum at West Point

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Although the average American citizen knows that West Point rates A-1 as a military academy and that it offers a splendid engineering education, he does not know that many courses of civic and cultural value are included in its curriculum. Readers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES will be especially interested in knowing more about the Department of Economics, Government, and History.

The academic year at West Point is divided into two terms, the fall term, from September to December; and the spring term, from January to June. Classes are held from 7:55 A.M. to 11:55 A.M., and from 1:00 P.M. to 3:00 P.M. Saturday classes are held in the morning only. Voluntary study hour and additional instruction for cadets who need it are held daily from 5:10 P.M. to 6:10 P.M. Classes in mathematics and the other exact sciences are held six days a week, whereas classes in history, English, etc., meet three times weekly. As a general rule, every cadet recites every day in every subject, either orally or in writing. Grades are posted weekly on the bulletin board, in order that every cadet may know exactly how he stands in every course.

Since the days of Colonel Sylvanus Thayer, who was Superintendent from 1817 to 1833, the Academy has followed the policy of ability grouping. Cadets are divided into sections of not more than fifteen men each. Each time that the grades are published, a cadet may be moved from a higher section to a lower section or vice versa. Transfers are usually made at the end of the month. When the cadet reaches his proper mental level, he may progress at a pace which is best suited to his abilities. That the academic mortality is high may be deduced from the fact that over a long period of years, only about 65% of each class entering the Academy has actually graduated. West Point, listed by the Association of American Universities as an "approved technological institution," grants the degree of Bachelor of Science.

Ancient history and United States history are the only social studies included in the entrance examinations for the United States Military Academy. Units in English history and European history are accepted, however. The examinations are substantially the same as those given by the College Entrance Examination Board.

A "validating" examination, shorter than the regu-

lar examination is given for those candidates who submit an acceptable secondary school certificate in lieu of the regular entrance examination. The purpose of this validating examination is to determine the candidate's fitness for successfully pursuing the first year academic course at the Academy. A candidate may be admitted without any examination if he submits a properly attested certificate from the College Entrance Examination Board. Roughly one-third of the total number of candidates take the regular entrance examination. The following courses are offered by the Department of Economics, Government, and History:

Third Class year (Sophomore)

Fall term: Europe from medieval times through the French Revolution.

Spring term: Europe from the Napoleonic Era to the present.

Textbooks: Hayes, *A Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe*, Volumes I and II; Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*. During the written general review periods, fall and spring, cadets exempted from such reviews are given a course in modern history of the Far East. Textbook: Vinacke, *History of the Far East in Modern Times*. (It should be noted that the latter is a special course offered only to the upper two-thirds of the Third or Sophomore Class.)

First Class year (Senior)

Fall term: Government.

A survey of the evolution of political forms, from the prehistoric era to the present; a more detailed examination of political systems extant today; and a final concentration on the organization and operation of government in the United States. Two periods are devoted to military government.

Textbooks: Maxey, *The American Problem of Government*; *Military Aid to the Civil Power*, by the General Service Schools; Department pamphlets: *The Governments of the Major European Powers*, *The Status of Military Personnel as Voters*.

Spring term: Economics.

An investigation of the economic organization of modern society with special reference to the United States and a consideration of the part money and credit play in the operation of this organization. Short courses in the principles of insurance and the principles of double-entry bookkeeping are included.

Textbooks: Fairchild, Furniss, and Buck, *Elementary Economics*; *Twentieth Century Bookkeeping and Accounting*, Part I; Department pamphlet: *Principles of Insurance*.

During the written review periods, a special course in international relations is given the upper sections, from 70% to 77% of the class.

Textbooks: Simonds and Emeny, *The Great Powers in World Politics*; Department pamphlet: *The United States; Its Situation as to Strategic and Critical Raw Materials*.

Throughout the year a course in public affairs is given the entire class, the *New York Times* and the *New York Herald Tribune*, and one monthly review, *Events*, being used for reference.

A special course in military history is given by the Department of Engineering.

Textbooks: Dodge, *Great Captains*; Jomini, *Life of Napoleon*; Steele, *American Campaigns*; McEntee, *Military History of the World War*.

Some civilian educators have expressed the fear that regimentation of thought is practiced at West Point. Such is not the case, however. On a recent visit to history and economics classes at the Academy, the writer found that a healthy freedom of speech and freedom of thought prevails in the classroom. The policy of the Department is best expressed in the following word to cadets:

Interpretation of history necessarily raises conflicting views. It is to be expected that you will find your ideas not infrequently in conflict with those expressed in the text. Likewise you must expect to disagree at times with your instructor. Such disagreement will be welcomed as a desirable stimulus to independent thought. However, in the analysis of history as in all intellectual controversy, it is advisable to be guided by a few basic principles. First, be sure you have your facts straight. Secondly, develop your thought logically from sound premises, avoiding the pitfall of the substitution of emotion for reason. Lastly, if given to "advanced thought," to enthusiasm for today's undemocratic "isms," check your conclusions to make certain they do not overstep the limits implicit in your oath of office.

Each department at West Point is headed by a permanent professor with the rank of colonel or lieutenant colonel. He is assisted by several officers of the line (i.e., Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, etc.) who are detailed for a period of four to seven years. The professor is careful to select officers who are especially qualified as instructors. Although the majority of officers on duty at West Point are Academy graduates, some non-graduates are also found there.

In the Department of Economics, Government, and History, there are eighteen instructors, all of whom have been carefully selected by the professor.

They are graduates who stood high in the social sciences in their cadet days, preference being given to those who have done graduate work at a university. Since 1927, funds have been available to provide for graduate courses for West Point instructors at government expense. As a result, many have obtained Master's degrees, and in some cases, Doctor's degrees. Among the present membership of the Department of Economics, Government, and History, there are officers who have studied at the following institutions. University of Pennsylvania, Harvard University, Wichita University, Oxford University (England), Geneva Institute of Politics (Switzerland), Columbia University, Catholic University, College of the City of New York, Georgetown University, University of Chicago, Pennsylvania State College, University of Nebraska.

No one is even considered for detail to the Academic Department at West Point unless he has had at least five years' service as an officer in the regular Army.

Lest any reader of this article think that West Point suffers from faculty inbreeding. I wish to point out that during the five years of duty with troops, there has been afforded to the young officer a variety of experiences which seldom falls to the lot of a civilian teacher.

Let us say that Lieutenant A and Lieutenant B graduated from the Academy in 1934 and are now being considered for the detail at West Point. A was commissioned in the cavalry, served two years at Fort Bliss, El Paso, Texas; two years in the Philippine Islands; and one year at the Cavalry School, Fort Riley, Kansas. B was commissioned in the Engineers, detailed for one year of graduated study at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, then served two years with Combat Engineer troops at Schofield Barracks, Hawaii, one year at the Engineer School, Fort Belvoir, Virginia, and is now on duty at Fort Dupont, Delaware. He is also taking an evening course in a nearby university. Thus we see that these two officers, although classmates at West Point, have had widely dissimilar experiences since graduation. Lieutenant A, through his service on the Mexican border and in the Philippines, has had an exceptional opportunity to contact Spanish-speaking people; Lieutenant B has continued his engineering education, but has been broadened through travel. A and B are imaginary beings; yet their cases may be regarded as typical.

From time to time, the Department arranges to have lectures by speakers who bring a fresh viewpoint from the outside world to the cadets. Sir Alfred Zimmern, Professor of International Relations at Oxford University; J. Carlton Hayes of Columbia, Fred R. Fairchild of Yale, and William S. Myers of Princeton are included in the lists of historians and

economists who have addressed the Corps recently. Since 1931, the Cadet Lecture Committee has brought to West Point a wide variety of lecturers and entertainers, whose programs have been of high cultural value. In January 1940, Hon. Hugh Gibson, former United States Ambassador to Belgium and Brazil, addressed the corps of cadets on international affairs.

Thus the social studies curriculum is up-to-date and worth while. The modern Army officer has two sets of knowledge—military and civilian—the same as he has two sets of clothing, military and civilian.

Whether he be commanding a troop of cavalry in Texas, teaching military science and tactics at the University of Michigan, or dredging the Delaware River, he needs a knowledge of business, government, economics, and many other things that the average civilian does not associate with the Army. To this end, the United States Military Academy seeks to build character and to provide its cadets with the type of education that will best fit them for their careers as officers of the Army.

Differences and Similarities in the Study of Man

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Knowledge of facts and attitudes of mind are both gained as a result of study in any field of learning. Attitudes, it is true, are frequently an overlooked by-product. They are more difficult to deal with than facts; they are more subtle, less tangible. Yet, attitudes are often the most significant results of study, especially in the field of the social studies.

One of the deeper attitudes ingrained in the minds of students (which may be unintentional) is that of the differences between men. The social studies as taught today points to, describes, and explains the differences between men—the prehistoric man and the historic man, the Russian and the Italian, the Jew and the Gentile, the Negro and the white man. These differences of race, nationality, religion, and time are often exaggerated in the minds of students to a point where the belief prevails that the various groups are more different than they are alike.

Let us consider some examples:

When the story of primitive man's brutish existence is told, the differences between the life of primitive man and modern man are emphasized (whether stated or implied), and not the similarities. For example, there is a description of the tools that early man used. Whether the teacher or pupil draws the conclusion, it is that the differences between the tools of ancient man and the tools of modern man are tremendous. This is correct. But a vital point has possibly been overlooked, and that deals with the common experiences of both. Both early man and modern man have needed tools. Both early man and modern man have used their knowledge and skills to fashion the best kinds of tools possible. Both early man and modern man have had the same needs, and both have tried to satisfy their same needs in the same, or at least in a similar way. But in the study,

the differences between the kinds of tools are stated and described, and the similarity of the problem and the solution of that problem faced by both primitive and modern man is nearly always overlooked.

Let us take another illustration, that of religious beliefs, say the religious beliefs of a certain primitive African tribe. In the study the students are taught (and again the comparison is more or less obvious and intended) that the heathen African tribe believes one thing, and that Christians believe another. The primitive tribe believes in many gods; the Christians believe in one God. The primitives believe their gods inhabit trees, rocks, and other inanimate objects; the Christians believe no such thing. On and on the story goes, pointing out the differences between the two religious systems. This usually is where the description or contrast ends. But again the vital points of similarity are forgotten. The fact that both African primitive and civilized Christian have the same basic need for a religious interpretation of the world is not presented. The fact that both, heathen and Christian, have the same questions they want answered, that both find it important enough to build a religious faith, that the religions of both are related to the prevailing scientific beliefs, and that both disregard and deny opposing beliefs, are not considered. In a word, both, Christian and heathen, face the same human problem and solve it in a human way. These vital points are usually not mentioned and not understood.

Of course, in both examples, only single aspects of existence (tools in one case, and religion in the other) are mentioned. It must be remembered that the study is usually a rounded description of the lives and cultures of, say, prehistoric man or of the primitive African tribe. The deductions, the comparisons, the attitudes resulting are nearly always hap-

hazard and indefinite. Frequently, it is the pupil who deduces and compares, and is more or less conscious of the fact that he is doing this. The resulting attitude so very often is that of differences—differences that are felt by the pupil between himself and the kind of people that he is studying, differences between his problems and the problems of other people and peoples, differences of the solutions to the problems made by other people and the solutions that are possible for him. There does not seem to be any common ground. The lives and struggles of other people appear alien, strange, and not useful. It seems merely like an interesting story of no real practical value or significance to the student.

People are more alike than they are different, whatever groups we have in mind. People eat, sleep, mate, dress, fear, have needs and desires, are born, mature, age, and die—whether these people live now, or lived a thousand years ago, or will live a thousand years from now, whether they live in Arctic cold or in tropic heat, in densely populated cities or on lonely sand-blown desert. The lives of various people must differ, due to the various environments to which they must adapt themselves, but the essential problems of man are fundamentally the same in all ages and in all climes.

A number of similarities can be listed as between men. This is but another way of saying that all men have experiences in common. There is the same origin. There is similarity in physical appearance, bone structure, feature arrangement, etc. There is a human nature (psychological makeup and reactions, essential needs, desires, instincts, etc.) common to all men. There is the same problem of making a living out of the particular environment. There is the

problem of dealing with the identical forces and laws of nature. There are similar institutions and practices among all peoples—political, economic, religious, military, sexual, etc. There are the same questions of truth and error, right and wrong, beauty and ugliness. There is the same ignorance of ultimate causes and ultimate explanations of living and dying among all people. Many other experiences, thoughts, and actions, common to all men could be listed. But this list is sufficient to emphasize the point, that all men, of all periods of history and of all parts of the world, have so many identical and similar problems and experiences that to see and study only the differences between men, and to ignore or overlook the vital likenesses, leads to an incorrect lopsided interpretation.

It is the belief of this writer that the one-sided emphasis has been a factor in decreasing the chances for understanding between groups in the past. Groups usually emphasize their points of difference and overlook their points of similarity. In the first case, argument and conflict result. In the second case, harmony and coöperation result.

If teachers and students of the social studies, especially, would stress the common experiences of various groups and if they would speak of their similar problems, and similar needs, desires, and experiences, they would be laying up the capital for a future interest of tolerance, sympathy, and understanding wherever their teaching and studying would lead.

A study of the differences between men is essential in the pursuit of knowledge. But a study of the similarities and likenesses between men is essential in the pursuit of sympathetic understanding.

Motion Picture Department

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The major production companies of Hollywood last year turned out 596 feature length pictures for consumption by the American movie public. Surveys show that high school students attend, on the average, one movie a week. This means that the average high school student had the opportunity of choosing 52 out of 596, or one out of eleven of the films produced. We are assuming that several theaters were available for attendance. On what basis did the student choose to see one picture and discard the other ten? Who helped the student to become aware of the values inherent in the pictures that he saw?

The social studies teacher can perform a valuable

service which will be welcomed by the students in his classes if he will help to establish standards for choosing and evaluating films. It is suggested that teachers look for critical reviews of the following pictures as they will appear in the movie section of the *New York Times*, *Time* magazine, *Parents' Magazine*, *McCall's*, and the *Educational Screen*.

This department in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* magazine attempts to give advance information on pictures of interest in the social studies field, but since these pictures have not been released at the time of this writing, it is not possible to present a critical evaluation of them.

FEATURE PICTURES

FLORIAN

The picture deals with the passing of the Austria that was the Hapsburg empire. The story opens in 1910 showing life as it was lived in and about the court of Emperor Franz Josef, moves on to 1915 showing the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand, the world war, and then the Revolution. The picture is dominated by the acting of the Lippizan stallion, Florian, descendent of a long line of cavalry mounts bred by the Hapsburg for the defence of Austria.

Produced by MGM. Director, Edwin L. Marin.

Release date, March 29, 1940.

The cast includes: Robert Young, Helen Gilbert, Charles Coburn, and Reginald Owen.

THE HOUSE OF SEVEN GABLES

This famous old story follows the fortunes of a decaying New England family. Hepzibah and her son Clifford who has just been released from prison, are living in great poverty at the old homestead, the House of Seven Gables. A cousin, the Judge, has been shifting responsibility for certain crimes on Clifford. The death of the Judge frees Clifford and his mother and makes them possessors of his wealth. Elements of mystery and morbidity are woven into the story.

Produced by Universal. Director, Joe May.

The cast includes: George Sanders, Margaret Lindsay, Vincent Price, and Dick Foran.

Release date, April 12, 1940.

TOM BROWN'S SCHOOL DAYS

This story is based on the book by the same name written in 1857 by Thomas Hughes, depicting English public-school life. The story portrays the life of Tom, a middle class lad, from the moment he enters the lowest form of the great school at Rugby, a homesick, timid boy, to the time when he has developed into a big brawny fellow, a football hero, and ready to pass on to Oxford. An interesting picture of middle nineteenth century life at Rugby is presented: its social habits, its methods of teaching, beliefs, and ideas.

Produced by RKO. Director, Robert Stevenson.

The cast includes: Sir Cedric Hardwicke, Jim Lydon, Freddie Bartholomew, Josephine Hutchinson, and Polly Moran.

Release date, May 10, 1940.

THE FIGHT FOR LIFE

The original source material for this film comes from the chapters on maternal welfare found in Paul de Kruif's book "The Fight for Life." A young doctor, present at a fatal delivery, resolves to obtain further knowledge and experience in child birth practice. As he visits patients living in very unwhole-

some home conditions he raises the query if it is worthwhile to bring young life into such surroundings. The picture is a dramatized effort to publicize a national problem and to acquaint the public with the resources available to meet the situation of maternity in the slums. The documentary films of the producer-director Pare Lorentz are well known because of his two previous short subjects "The Plow That Broke the Plains" and "The River." "The Fight for Life" is the first full length film produced by the United States Government.

Produced by the U.S. Film Service. Director, Pare Lorentz.

Release date indefinite.

SHORT PICTURES

SAM HOUSTON

Warner Brothers has started preparation on "Sam Houston" which will be produced as an historical featurette. The life of this famous Texan was portrayed last year by Republic pictures in a full length film "Man of Conquest."

CANADA AT WAR

March of Time's recent release deals with the problem which Canada faces in carrying out her functions as a belligerent in the present war. This March of Time issue was temporarily banned by the Ontario Board of Censors but has recently been released.

AT THE NEIGHBORHOODS

Northwest Passage
Abe Lincoln in Illinois
Dr. Ehrlich's Magic Bullet
Young Tom Edison
Edison, the Man
Virginia City

NEWS NOTES

The Ohio State University, each quarter, chooses ten of the better films of the last few years and presents them to the students without admission charge. This program makes it possible for students at The Ohio State University to become acquainted with the best productions issued by Hollywood and foreign producers. High schools may be interested in planning a similar program for noonday recreation periods or for some other time in the school program. The list of pictures to be shown this quarter at the University includes: "The Talkies," a history of the movies prepared by the New York Museum of Modern Art Film Library; "Ballerina," a French film presenting the ambitions of a group of ballet dancers; "Winterset," a film version of Maxwell Anderson's stage success; "Juarez" based on the struggle for democracy in Mexico; "Emil Und Die Detektive," a charming German comedy; "The 400 Million," a

documentary film on China; "Idiot's Delight," on the futility of war; "Edge of the World," filmed on a rocky island north of Scotland; "Dark Victory," and "Little Women," the dramatization of Louisa M. Alcott's famous story.

A bulletin called "Films on War and American Neutrality" has been issued by the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. A series of twelve films dealing with the events leading to the present European war, the war in the Orient, and the machinery for peace and American neutrality are described in detail. Suggestions for the use of these films in schools and information on where they may be acquired are given in the bulletin. The price of this booklet is twenty-five cents.

A series of excerpts from theatrical films such as "Alice Adams," "Dead End," "Zola," "Captains Courageous," and "Louis Pasteur" have been edited by the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association and are available to

schools on a rental basis. These films provide students and teacher with a common experience of reacting to a portrayal of human emotions and feelings. This sharing of a common experience focuses the attention of the group on certain factors of personality which are paramount in our educational objectives, and prepares students for a sincere and interested discussion of the values that they hold. Information about these films may be obtained by writing Alice Keliher, Commission on Human Relations, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

The Technicolor cartoon "Peace on Earth" has been entered for the Nobel Peace Prize for the coming year. It will be submitted to the Nobel Prize committee of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, Sweden, as a subject responsible for the promotion of international peace. This is the first time in history that a cinema film has been entered for the Nobel Prize.

News and Comment

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EDUCATION, 1939

In the leading article of the March 16 issue of *School and Society*, entitled "Educational Progress During the Year, 1939," Professor Carter V. Good gave his third annual review of educational developments. The issues of March 12, 1938, and April 15, 1939, carried the first two reviews. They dealt mainly with the work of educational commissions and with outstanding research projects. Because so much attention, during these years, had been given to the relations and functions of education and democracy, Professor Good this year sought out conclusions reached thus far and presented them as found in six lines of endeavor.

Students of the relation of democracy and education agreed that, in order for democracy to survive and to work progressively better with the years, public education must occupy a central place in the democratic process. The definition of democracy which was quoted from a report made by Professor George S. Counts is worth noting. Democracy is "identified with that government or society which is dedicated to the preservation and realization of the great ethical conceptions of the fundamental equality, brotherhood, dignity and moral worth of all men." The importance of a system of universal, free education to democracy was made clear particularly in the many reports of the Educational Policies Commission.

In recent years, increasing attention has been paid to ways for applying "a philosophy of democratic leadership in school management, administration and supervision." Such a philosophy requires that "all who are concerned in the results of a [school] policy should share, according to ability, in making the policy, with the expectation of formulating better policies and the recruitment and development of a higher type of teacher." Such sharing in any school will depend for success largely upon the methods of appointment, tenure, and promotion of personnel and its participation in school management, and upon the laws and regulations flowing from them. No less important is the feeling by administrators that they are answerable to their teachers equally with their school boards. Such a concept calls for the coöperation of parents, citizens, school board, administrative officers, teachers, and pupils, in the work of educating for the democratic life of the living community. Many aspects of this matter are now being studied by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, often in discussion groups in high schools all over the nation. Concrete examples of democratic procedure are being sought.

How can educational opportunity and support be equalized throughout the land? Since greater federal and state aid is necessary, how can it be employed in local communities without thwarting democratic

processes there? Considerable light has been shed on this problem by studies carried on by the Advisory Committee on Education. These studies now make available the material basic to any discussion of the problem from the federal angle. The problem is being examined from the state angle by the Study of Local School Units conducted under the direction of the United States Office of Education.

Another important phase of the relation of education and democracy in our nation is the effect of present social change upon education. Because the problems growing out of the industrialization of our society are largely economic, many school problems have an economic background principally. Moreover, since education strives to adjust youth to the social order, the changing conditions of that order complicate educational planning and activity. The Commission on the Relation of School and College and the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum, both of the Progressive Education Association, and the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education have made several reports on this problem, and others are in prospect. An extended survey of various phases of the work of the American Youth Commission was made in *The High School Journal* which devoted all of its March issue to it. Several aspects of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education were appraised at considerable length in the March 13 issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin*. The educational effects of social change are exemplified in this inquiry.

Much attention is being devoted to the interrelation of heredity, environment, and the development and adjustment of youth, a matter which continues to provoke great differences of opinion because of the fragmentary character of the evidence at hand. The 1940 *Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education presented information on this phase of education and democracy ("Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture").

Finally, what criteria are reliable for appraising and evaluating the findings of all such educational research, and how may those findings best be implemented for practical use? Especially active in this field are the North Central Association's Committee on Revision of Standards, the Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards, and the Coöperative Study of Teacher Education conducted by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. Norman Woelfel, in the March 13 number of the *Educational Research Bulletin*, presented an eight-page résumé of "The Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards" which he called "the most significant study ever made of secondary education in America." His résumé is a helpful introduction to the half-dozen volumes of the report of that Study.

In this article by Professor Good were shown the main currents of educational development last year. Much of it is of particular interest to secondary-school teachers. Those who wish to study some phases of this development will find this article a helpful guide to materials as well as trends.

EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC WELL-BEING

The latest major publication of the Educational Policies Commission is "Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy." Dr. John K. Norton of Teachers College, Columbia University, a member of the Commission who prepared the monograph, summarized its principal ideas in *The Journal* of the N.E.A. for March. First, he said, education increased the productivity of the nation by increasing the skill and effectiveness of workers. Second, education promoted mobility in occupations by developing the ability to transfer from the crowded, unskilled callings to those of greater economic value. Third, it stimulated workers to rise through their own efforts. Fourth, it did much to provide the productive efficiency or intelligence necessary in a complex, industrial economy. The coöperation required of workers in modern industry can not be given by an uneducated people. Fifth, consumer education in the schools inculcated American standards and thus created the American demand for goods and services. Sixth, education developed social intelligence on economic problems. Much has yet to be done here, but the schools today have made a beginning.

Education, of course, is an important factor in determining economic well-being. How can that well-being be increased by education? Should public schools be free for fourteen years instead of twelve, and made available to all? Would it not pay business to insist that older youth be given such an extension of free education? A much longer discussion of this matter was given by Professor Norton in the March number of the *Teachers College Record*.

MEETING YOUTH'S NEEDS

Since the nation is just coming to grips with the problem of youth who are out of school and out of work, it is likely to hold an important place in national thinking for a long time. Dr. Charles H. Judd, formerly Dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago and now serving in the National Youth Administration, sees the problem from the viewpoint of national welfare as well as from that of the school. In the March issue of the *School Review* he stated the problem and many of its implications, in an article on "The Induction of Young People into Adulthood."

The problem, although not new, become noticed nationally during the depression. Large numbers of youth in the 1930's went West like their forebears,

but they found no free land and no more opportunity for work than back home. These wanderers made a problem which the national government met by establishing the CCC camps. Labor, fearing CCC competition, got a voice in the administration of the corps. The schools, traditionally unmindful of the educational needs of young people who have left their halls, did not enter the picture. The federal Office of Education undertook to meet the educational needs of CCC youth by supplying the camps with advisers. Certainly relief alone would not do for unemployed youth. Relief may suffice for the aged. But for youth who are just at the beginning of life there must also be education and opportunity.

One disadvantage of the camps was that they took youths out of their home communities where, later, they had great difficulty in re-establishing contacts and making adjustments. The federal government accordingly established the NYA. It keeps young people in the home environment and, in coöperation with the local community, provides useful work projects and educational facilities. This youth problem requires united action by school, labor, welfare agencies, and government, local, state, and national.

The problem is permanent, for it is not likely that employment will be found for all youth out of school. It must be remembered that formerly children outnumbered adults. Now adults outnumber children two to one and the adults can not find enough jobs for themselves. Since the founding of our nation the unemployment problem has been met by developing the national resources in the public domain. That domain, drawn into production, enlarged the nation's capital and thereby increased national income. But now there is no public domain, no unused national capital, to put to work. Now the costs of the unemployment situation must be met out of income, that is, by taxes. Since the nation is not accustomed to that, the outcry is great and the obstacles to dealing with the problem are increased. The federal government has always helped the nation by subsidies. Education was subsidized in the Ordinance of 1787. The Homestead Act, by free gifts of land, subsidized not only education but individuals and business, as our land-grant colleges and western railroads bear witness. The public domain is now dissipated, but what the government is trying to do through such agencies as the CCC and NYA is no new policy.

The basic problem for the nation today is how to induct young people into adulthood. The traditional school no longer does that. Formerly it did it for a few who were going into the professions, while the mass were inducted into adulthood by the many activities of the home and local community. Much of that burden rests upon the school now. Especially difficult is the matter of inducting youth into in-

dustry. Schools do not accustom youth to work for the hours industry will require or to work for wages. Perhaps the school should not provide such experiences, since it is not the only social agency responsible for inducting youth into adulthood. In some places a combination work-school program is in force, providing more varied experience than either work or school can give. Nowadays education for the professions and skilled trades is not enough. At least half the working population is unskilled or semi-skilled. All are citizens and parents. With nearly all the nation's youth in school, therefore, a new kind of education is needed.

What shall such education be? Specialized education will not be neglected, but for the mass of youth more generalized education seems desirable. To answer the question will require the coöperation of all school agencies on a national scale. Dr. Judd's own thought as to what general education should be he presented in an address before the February meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals which was printed in the February *Bulletin* (no. 88) of the Association. Because he felt no one person alone could solve the problem, Dr. Judd gave merely the broad outlines of what he conceived would be the courses in language, science, mathematics, social studies, personal problems, and vocations.

In connection with his suggestions as to desirable curricular changes it is interesting to read R. R. Penhale's description of the "Highlights of the High Schools of Tomorrow," which appeared in the April issue of *The North Central Association Quarterly*. Mr. Penhale, school principal in Iron River, Michigan, stated that a master's degree will be a minimum requirement for all secondary-school teachers and that salaries will rise. Social science will lay even greater stress upon materials from the fields of economics, sociology, and political science. Vocational guidance and practical instruction in vocational skills will become of great importance. Practical training in worthy home membership, consumer education, and the use of the common tools will receive more attention. English and history courses will become more practical for life today, and health education will deal more adequately with health as a personal and community matter, making available to laymen much that now is left to the physician to tell.

Present indications suggest that the next decade or two will do for "the general course" what the last decade or two did for the vocational. Certainly general education is prominent in educational thought today.

SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION

Supplementing these articles in many ways is the discussion of "Sociology's Contribution to Secondary Education," which occupied the entire March issue

of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*. The April number dealt with the same subject on the elementary school level.

Professor Francis J. Brown of New York University, who was in charge of the March number, presented its purpose and described concrete ways in which sociology has affected education. Such phases of the subject were discussed as, "Secondary Education in Transition," "The School Discovers the Community," "Community Study and Educational Administration," "Sociology and New Curricula," "Sociological Forces in Method," and "The Secondary School and Student Adjustment."

INTER-AMERICAN ECONOMY

In the April and May issues of *Common Sense* Carleton Beals studied the economic problem of the Americas: "Toward a Hemisphere Economy." He gave reasons why inter-American trade should be fostered more than trade with Europe. In sketching the requirements for a long-range program he showed, however, what the many obstacles were which must be overcome, such as our traditional Latin-American policy, the problem of buying much more of Latin-America's goods rather than merely lending money, the difficulties of establishing a basis of mutual benefit rather than of exploitation, and the problems of raising living standards and of fostering genuine democracy in the countries south of us.

DECLARATION OF RIGHTS

Drawn from his new book, *The New World Order*, "Ten Points for World Peace," by H. G. Wells, appearing in the March number of *Current History*, offered a provocative Declaration of Rights of Man of our day. Mr. Wells proposed economic rights along with personal, political, and social rights. He stated his ten points merely as a basis for building up a real declaration and not as the declaration itself. Greatly condensed, his ten points were:

1. Everyone is entitled to the physical necessities, care, and attention which shall always assure him his best health, physical and mental.
2. Everyone is entitled to sufficient education to develop his abilities for the service of mankind, should always have easy access to the stores of knowledge, and should enjoy complete freedom of discussion, association, and worship.
3. Everyone may freely choose his vocation and is entitled to work and adequate pay.
4. Freedom to buy and sell is guaranteed to all, subject only to the common welfare.
5. A man's property should be given full protection against violence, intimidation, and deprivation.

6. Freedom of movement is guaranteed to all.
7. No one, unless charged with a definite offense, shall be imprisoned for more than a week, and if charged shall be brought to trial within three months. Conscientious objectors shall not be conscripted for military duty. Those adjudged dangerous through mental abnormality shall be reexamined and readjudged annually.
8. Each person shall be protected by law against lies or misrepresentation distressing or injurious to him, and there shall be no secret dossiers but all administrative registration and records about a man shall be open to his inspection and challenge.
9. No one shall be mutilated or sterilized without his free consent nor subject to torture or bodily assault of any kind, except in restraint of his own violence, nor subject to excess of noise, silence, light, or darkness, which cause mental suffering, nor to imprisonment in insanitary or unhealthful quarters, nor forcibly fed or drugged. Punishment should not exceed rigorous imprisonment for fifteen years, or death.
10. The code of human rights shall be fully defined and easily accessible to all and rigorously adhered to as the fundamental law for all mankind.

Mr. Wells added, "There, I think, is something that keener minds than mine may polish into a working Declaration which would in the most effective manner begin that restoration of confidence of which the world stands in need."

DEMOCRACY IN ECLIPSE

George C. Stoney who, in the January issue of the *Survey Graphic*, described the social consequences of the iniquitous system of poll taxes in the South, completed his story of "Suffrage in the South" by describing in the March issue the effects of "The One Party System." Out of twenty-seven million persons in the "Solid South," he said, barely three million will be eligible to vote this November, including fewer than fifty thousand of the eight million Negroes there. Everywhere, the Democratic Party will be virtually without opposition. Only at the primaries will there be any competition between Democrats for a place on the ticket.

Mr. Stoney pointed out various underhand and even fraudulent practices used by the political machines, practices known throughout the nation. Much of the viciousness of the Southern situation today he traced to the Reconstruction period after the Civil War nearly three generations ago.

Because the "poor whites" have been hardly less

feared than the Negro, various devices have been used to disfranchise them. The principal instrument has been the poll tax, which Mr. Stoney described in his first article. He has little hope that the situation will be noticeably improved in the near future.

USEFUL MISCELLANY

In "Auditorium Social Arts: a Laboratory in Citizenship" (*The Clearing House* for March), Mr. W. Howard Bateson who directs the auditorium classes in the Jefferson Junior High School of Dubuque, Iowa, told specifically how he used auditorium exercises to give practical training in citizenship and democracy.

Jay Franklin, nationally known political columnist and radio commentator, wrote interestingly of what happens when "Congress Passes a Bill" (*Current History* for March). Mr. Franklin related the story of a bill, step by step, from its conception, its birth in Congress, through its later stages until its full maturity as a law. He gave many picturesque details and wrote in an informal style which will greatly enhance the more formal accounts in textbooks.

Alden Stevens contributed to the March issue of the *Survey Graphic* an article on "Whither the American Indian?" He paid high tribute to John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs since 1933, who has been one of the great leaders in the struggle to better the lot of the Indian. Replete with pictures, this moving account of the Indian, of the "New Deal" in Indian affairs, and of the happier outlook, will be read with much interest by high-school students.

Mr. D. R. Barton told "The Story of Heraldry" in the March number of *Natural History*. Although written for adults, he related so many interesting instances, especially in British heraldry, that older students of medieval history will enjoy his account.

MEETINGS

On April 19-20, in Baltimore, was held the thirty-seventh annual spring meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers. On Friday afternoon, discussion centered around the topic, "Some New Social Studies Courses in Secondary Schools." Among those recognized as making a real bid for recognition were consumer education, inter-American relations, and international relations.

Supplementing this afternoon conference, Dr. Harry B. Gideonse, at the dinner in the evening, spoke on "Integration of the Social Sciences as a Challenge to Scholarship," a matter now a practical problem in many classrooms. On Saturday morning specific examples were presented of ways in which teachers are "Teaching the Superior Student," in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Washington, D.C., on

all grade levels from the elementary to the college. At the Saturday luncheon tribute was paid to the late John Martin Vincent of Johns Hopkins University.

The 1940 conference of the School of Business of the University of Chicago, to be held on June 27-28, will endeavor to answer the question, "Business Education for What?" Three sessions will be devoted to problems of bias, emotion, and prejudice in business education, to the consumer approach in business education, and to the problem of the individual's adjustment to the world of business and to the world in general. The conference will conclude with practical suggestions for applying the material of the conference to the classroom situation.

The two-weeks conference at Wellesley College this summer, beginning on July 6, will have as its theme, "Building Democracy." Among the discussion leaders will be Dr. Ernest Minor Patterson of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor Peter H. Odegard of Amherst College, and Dr. Broadus Mitchell of Occidental College. Teachers, students, professional men, business men, farmers, employers, and wage earners from all parts of the country will discuss "What Can the American Voter Do to Build Democracy in a War-Torn World?" The question will be divided into two main divisions: "The Individual Voter and Power Politics," and "The Individual Voter and the Campaign Issues," such as prosperity, economy, and war and peace.

At Camp Andree, Pleasantville, New York, a two-weeks Western Hemisphere Encampment for Girl Scouts will be held, beginning August 14. Designed to promote inter-American friendship, delegates will be assembled from all parts of the Americas. Most of the girls will be of senior high-school age. Through music, samples of arts and crafts, sharing in work and play, and in other ways the encampment will develop understanding, friendship, and inter-American good will.

"Youth and Money Management" will be the subject considered at the seventh annual Summer Session Conference of Cornell University on August 8-10, 1940. A general session will be devoted to each of the following phases of the subject: planning, saving, borrowing, and insuring. Outlines of speeches and bibliographies will be distributed at the opening session, and there will be a discussion period following each major presentation. The final session of the conference will be devoted to a consideration of how to teach money management in the schools. Among the speakers already secured are H. E. Babcock, founder of the G.L.F., B. H. Francis, American Institute for Economic Research, and President Edmund E. Day, and Professors Helen Canon, Whiton Powell, Mark Entorf, and F. M. Thurston of the Cornell faculty.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania

American Policy in the Far East, 1931-1940. By T. H. Bisson. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1939. Pp. vii, 138. \$1.25.

This brief factual synthesis of the Far Eastern policy of the United States since the Manchurian crisis of 1931 is one of a series of studies in an Inquiry organized by the Institute of Pacific Relations into the problems arising from the Sino-Japanese conflict. The author follows the compact style of many of the Foreign Policy Association Reports. He draws his material largely from the press releases of the State Department, material which gives official American policy and opinions but seldom explains the reasons behind them. These must be sought in the contemporary domestic situation, in the internal developments in the nations of the Far East and in the relation between European affairs and those of Asia and America. Throughout these complex inter-relationships since the nineteenth century, the United States has adhered consistently to two objectives in her Far Eastern policy, the maintenance of the territorial and administrative integrity of China and of equal opportunity for all nations to participate in the commercial development of China. Her support of these principles has been consistently cautious and non-belligerent. But her methods of support have been contradictory and unpredictable. The author, an astute student of Chinese affairs, presents more clearly the case of China than that of Japan in the present conflict and holds that an independent China is not only important for American business interests but indispensable for the development of international trade and the maintenance of world stability and peace. His survey should be read in conjunction with the final chapters of A. Whitney Griswold's *The Far Eastern Policy of the United States*.

GRACE FOX

Washington, D.C.

Fascist Italy. By William Ebenstein. New York: American Book Company, 1939. Pp. x, 310. \$2.50.

Professor Ebenstein offers this well balanced and critical interpretation of Italian fascism as his contribution to the American Political Science Series. Recognizing that it is practically impossible to separate the political from the other functions of the totalitarian state, the author includes fairly detailed analyses of the religious, educational, sociological, and economic policies of the Fascist regime. Approxi-

mately one-third of the space is given to an appraisal of the corporative economy of Italy, which emerges with little said to its credit. In fact, the sections dealing with politics and law, in the strict technical sense, make up less than one-half of the volume, which is actually an analysis of the total Fascist performance.

There is nothing in this volume to suggest that fascism has found a convert in Professor Ebenstein. He has followed in the footsteps of Professor Salvemini, but has eschewed the pleasures of vehement denunciation, preferring to let the facts speak for themselves. Some of these are hardly new, but others show how energetically the author has pursued his researches. The display of facts also includes a large number of quotations from the works of Fascist writers, most of which are turned to point an anti-Fascist moral to the mind of the Anglo-Saxon reader. There are times when this method weakens the unity of the volume and leads the reader to wonder why the obvious has been so belabored. But this is only a criticism of style and organization. It does not impeach the fundamental soundness of the book, nor does it detract from Professor Ebenstein's achievement in compressing within three hundred pages enough evidence to straighten out anyone who may have formed the opinion that Fascism in Italy has been a glorious success.

H. ARTHUR STEINER

University of California
Los Angeles, California

Government and Economic Life; Development and Current Issues of American Public Policy. By Leverett S. Lyon, Myron W. Watkins and Victor Abramson. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1939. Volume I. Pp. 519. \$3.00.

This is the first volume of a two volume work undertaking to analyze the relationship of government to economic life as a whole "in terms of fundamental economic and social functions and fundamental governmental activities." In this volume the authors devote their attention to the relation of government to private enterprise generally. The pattern of treatment followed is the examination of public policy in America toward economic life with special emphasis upon the factors which have influenced its formation, the social objects consciously or unconsciously incorporated in it, the activities which are being carried on by government and the issues which are now current.

The book is divided into four parts. Part I is a review of well-known basic concepts and conditioning factors in the development of public policy. Part II is an analysis of the implementation of the private enterprise system. The discussion covers the development of instruments of implementation (i.e. organizational forms for business enterprise, etc.) and the collection and dissemination of knowledge helpful to private enterprise, by governmental action. Part III deals with the numerous detailed limitations and regulations placed upon the private enterprise system. In Part IV the author's briefly interpret the forces molding the relation of government to economic life in the United States and point out certain new trends and developments. These changes are the result of changes in opinion regarding relative social values.

Much of the raw data presented in this volume is familiar to students of economics and government. However, the organization and treatment of it merits the careful consideration of all persons who are concerned with analyzing and formulating our public policy. The approach is photographic in nature. The authors treat controversial problems with scholarly detachment. They refrain from passing judgment either upon the policies which have been developed or upon current issues or proposals for reform in public policy toward the private enterprise system. We are indebted to them for a comprehensive and timely analysis of the policy and trends in the relation of government toward economic life.

RAYMOND S. SHORT

Temple University
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Kodo: The Way of the Emperor: A short history of the Japanese. By Mary A. Nourse. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1940. Pp. 350. Illustrated. \$3.50.

Do not be misled by the title of this book, its frontispiece—a portrait of Emperor Hirohito in ceremonial robes—or the first two pages, in which the author acknowledges the official courtesies received on the occasion of a study trip to Japan. While sympathetic to the Japanese way of life, this history is thoroughly objective, based on reliable authorities, and in no sense propaganda. It is well organized and does not, as most of our school histories do, over-emphasize the importance of Japan's contacts with the West. The difficulties of condensing long stretches of history have been overcome without sacrifice of clarity. The book thus is a worthy successor of the author's well-known history of China: *The Four Hundred Million*.

Such weaknesses as it has derive from the author's clinging too closely, in some respects, to the formal tradition in the writing of such books. One might

wish, for example, that writers of Far Eastern histories would omit altogether the usual mythological section which does not represent even real folklore, since it is so largely made up of stories concocted for dynastic glorification. Basic economic changes and developments should not be discussed in separate chapters, almost as side issues, but serve as at least one central guide to the understanding of political events. For the same reason, more attention to geographical and other physical factors would have been justified.

Since such a book as this will be used in the schools mainly as supplementary reading in courses that cannot devote much time to Far Eastern history, it might have been preferable to introduce more vivid detail in the narration of illustrative episodes, even at the cost of further reducing the space available for the main sequence of events. A treatment which throughout personifies the State is too abstract to hold the interest of young people and does not provide enough clues to motivations, whether strategic, social, religious, or any other. In short, from the standpoint of modern history teaching, there is need for more reading material that permits of a ready recognition of the human realities that enter into every social process.

BRUNO LASKER

American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations
New York City

Foundations of Sociology. By George A. Lundberg. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xx, 556. \$3.50.

Like many other constructive thinkers from Comte to Pareto, Professor Lundberg postulates the need for a positivistic approach to the social sciences. He would develop a scientific system of sociology by applying the methods of the natural sciences to societal phenomena. His general thesis may be inferred from the following quotations: "... we wish to change the level of sociological discussion ... from its traditional plane of metaphysical name-calling to the plane of systematic determination of utility. ... The time is ripe for the systematization of the whole field of general sociology in quantitative symbols. ... all data are subject to such [quantitative] analysis and ... the nature of scientific development leaves us no choice but to work toward that end." From this point of view all phenomena are physical, and therefore the distinctions between the "natural" or "physical" and the "social" or "cultural" sciences lose their validity. His book is largely a theoretical explanation of the quantitative method of approach, although in Part III he outlines its application to "the principal sectors of society."

Few of his co-workers in the field of sociology will accept the more startling assumptions upon which his

thesis rests, but they will do well to recognize the possibility that, as he insists, when "the long delayed technological revolution in the social sciences" comes, "some of the suggestions of this volume . . . will perhaps appear as very modest aspirations."

This book is the product of over ten years of thoughtful work. It is not for the amateur, although Professor Lundberg states that he has used the manuscript as a text at Bennington. No serious student of sociology, however, or indeed of any of the other social sciences, can afford to neglect it. It will give added weight to Descartes' remark that "all the sciences are conjoined with each other and interdependent."

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Maine

Migration and Social Welfare. By Philip E. Ryan. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1940. Pp. 114. 50 cents.

No other decade of the twentieth century equalled the one which is just closing in bringing to public attention the facts and problems of transiency and migration within a nation. Following a brief historical survey of migration in this country since colonial times, Mr. Ryan described the causes, types, extent, and character of the modern migratory movement. The longest of his eight chapters traced the effects of the migrant upon the various social institutions of the local community. Other chapters dealt with proposals and experiments to meet the migrant problem, with laws and agencies, both public and private, and with plans for a coordinated national policy. A long bibliography was appended.

This monograph will be welcomed by the more mature students of social problems as a handy summary of the problem of the "non-settled person in the community."

MORRIS WOLF

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A Diplomatic History of the American People. By Thomas A. Bailey. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1940. Pp. xxiv, 806.

Professor Thomas A. Bailey has produced a study of American diplomacy that is probably unequalled in literary style and in substantive excellence. He has ably and interestingly presented the facts and principles of the foreign policy of the United States. The torch bearers who formulated and directed American diplomacy—presidents, secretaries of state, ambassadors, ministers, and consuls—are presented forcefully and realistically. For example, "Jefferson . . . was a pronounced liberal who, though passionately attached to his own country, admired the civilization

of France. And he cherished little love for the English—those 'rich, proud, hectoring, swearing, squibbling, carnivorous animals who lived on the other side of the Channel'" (p. 53). "Soulé was overjoyed [at the Black Warrior affair], for here was a splendid opportunity to lay down the law to the high-spirited Spaniard, goad him into war, and then rob him of the Caribbean pearl" (p. 313). Bailey wrote that "the average Englishman had never heard of the Venezuelan boundary dispute prior to Cleveland's message to Congress" (p. 487). Professor Bailey quotes this statement from a characteristic Rooseveltian remark, ". . . I never take a step in foreign policy unless I am assured that I shall be able eventually to carry out my will by force" (p. 564). In 1915 President Wilson said, "It is difficult for people to think logically when their sympathies are aroused" (p. 610).

As stated in the title of the book, Professor Bailey does not neglect the influence of public opinion in the foreign policy of the Nation. The narrative, furthermore, demonstrates clearly the "directing forces" which shaped the nation's foreign policy "especially as those forces expressed themselves in newspapers, magazines, and public addresses" (p. vii). In addition the author has examined many manuscripts and published documents of agents who participated in the chessboard of diplomacy. He has drawn heavily from speeches, diaries, letters, and newspapers to make American diplomacy realistic.

The book has forty-five interesting chapters, twenty-three useful maps, twenty-four cartoons, tables and appendices, and an adequate index.

President Dixon Ryan Fox accurately summarized the book in this lucid sentence, "He [Professor Bailey] has given us a 'reading book' as well as a 'study book.'"

GEORGE DEWEY HARMON

Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

The Course of the South to Secession. By Ulrich B. Phillips. Edited by E. Merton Coulter. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 176. \$2.50.

So pre-eminent was the late Professor Phillips in his chosen field of scholarship that his matured opinions on the causes of secession deserve a wide audience. The congratulations and thanks of students are therefore due those responsible for republishing in one volume both the long essay which gives this book its title and the shorter article on "The Central Theme of Southern History."

Two major theses dominate the whole work. The first one is explicitly presented: that the key to the old South is to be found, not in slavery, not in the plantation, not in staple crops, nor in any combina-

tion of these, but in the race question. Professor Phillips believed that the presence of a large Negro minority created the South as an entity and was moreover the fundamental fact which conditioned all thought and behavior of Southerners before 1861. His presentation of this view is highly convincing, but it seems unfortunate that it should be more cogently stated and more exactly argued in the short article than in the longer essay. The technique employed in the latter blunts the point. This is especially true of the first two chapters. Designed to demonstrate that from 1619 to 1789 the race question had not emerged as a sectional issue and that in consequence no sense of unity existed in the South during that period, they are disproportionately long for the purpose; the argument is buried for pages at a stretch in conventional repetition of familiar facts.

Interwoven with the thesis of race, but much more obliquely and subtly presented, is the author's second important contention: that the attitude of the North forced the race issue to the fore and that the North was therefore primarily and ultimately responsible for secession. In Professor Phillips' eyes this responsibility obviously attained the proportions of guilt, of meddling interference with the domestic affairs of an offending South. It is regrettable that this prejudice of the author should be so conspicuous, for it considerably detracts from the merits of a thoughtful and important contribution to ante-bellum history.

JOSEPH E. JOHNSON

Williams College

Williamstown, Massachusetts

A History of the Business Man. By Miriam Beard.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.
Pp. 779. \$5.00.

Noting that the business man has "developed no independent body of legend and tradition for himself" (p. 5), Miriam Beard has undertaken to ascertain whether he has held to any "discoverable ultimate purpose" (p. 4). After great industry with many tools (she took up the study of the Dutch language, for example, solely to implement herself for this subject), she has concluded that the course of the business man has veered, hither and yon, according to a nearsighted vision of immediate profits. He has not sanctified his occupation by a sustained pretense of unselfish objectives. Without such powerful fetishes as have supported the warriors and aristocrats in their dominance over war and politics, he has failed to transmute his gold into omnipotence in the modern state.

This thought-provoking volume is an analysis of attitudes, trends and relationships, across the centuries, rather than an attempt at detailed description of business routines. Wholly unhampered by traditional reverence, optimism or respect, the author

takes issue, spiritedly, with Shakespeare, Ruskin, and other dignitaries. Pungent observations abound. Christian lenders to Christian kings, rather than Hebrew usury, worked tragedy; the popular theory of that development of capitalist mentality was based on Calvinism is not confirmed; England produced a Manchester and a Birmingham because she had no prosperous Florence or Nürnberg to stand in the way, and her benevolence toward labor was due, more than realized, to her freedom in exploiting distant natives. In France, Colbert built up an early capitalism but Louis, by his persecutions, scattered it all over Europe, sending expert teachers among France's worst rivals. In Germany, Frederick's refusal in 1810 to establish a national bank and national debt, on the Franco-British-American models, preserved in modern Europe the Prussian feudal-military anachronism, which today threatens the capitalistic system. "Throughout the ages women, like the Church, the Feudality, and the Army, have been a problem for the business man" (p. 646).

A sharp, bold wit etches the character of the leaders into the pictures of their generations. There was Elizabeth Bas, who ran the best hotel in Amsterdam and "had a very Gibraltar of a face" (p. 297); "Petrarch thought that the business man would be improved by a dose of classical education; Machiavelli, having seen that tried, recommended the cold douche of poverty" (p. 169); "Like a King of the Underworld, Krupp flourished among lurid flames" (p. 573); "With impervious calm, the jut-jawed Vanderbilt stared down his foes" (p. 630). Upon the whole, the chief shortcoming of this volume is its lack of the well-roundedness for which an admixture of human sympathy is essential; for example, "The American way . . . consisted always in a distribution of blanks to blank minds, for a start" (p. 731). But the book has great value, for its strong purgative qualities.

JEANNETTE P. NICHOLS

Swarthmore, Pennsylvania

Consumer Credit and Economic Stability. By Rolf Nugent. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 419. Tables. \$3.00.

It is the main thesis of this book that consumer credit fluctuations have contributed substantially to the amplitude of cyclical movements in recent years and that they represent an increasingly powerful force toward economic instability.

The book is divided into three parts. Part I which is devoted to the historical development of consumer credit is non-technical and easily comprehensible. The first chapter defines the area of the study; the three succeeding chapters describe the development of the agencies and the techniques of consumer credit between 1800 and 1938; the fifth chapter discusses the

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forces underlying the growth and cyclical movements of consumer credit.

Part II deals with the economic consequences of consumer credit fluctuations. The opening chapters (Chapters 6 and 7) undertake to determine theoretically the relationship between the movements of consumer credit and production—first under the assumptions adopted by the classical economists, and then under the assumptions of incomplete utilization of the factors of production. The succeeding chapter attempts to measure empirically the influence of consumer credit fluctuations upon movements of the national income during the period from 1923 to 1938; the final chapter discusses the importance of consumer credit movements in relation to national economic policy and purposes a method of controlling such movements.

Part III describes the sources of data and methods used in constructing estimates of the outstanding amounts of various types of consumer credit. A chapter is devoted to each of the four major classes of consumer credit agencies: retail merchants, service creditors, intermediary financing agencies, and cash-lending agencies. These chapters will be of interest primarily to readers associated with consumer credit institutions, to statisticians, and to those who wish to appraise the reliability of the statistical evidence upon which conclusions have been based.

Dr. Rolf Nugent has certainly presented an excellent analysis of the dynamic characteristics of consumer credit with a sound discussion of the possibility of controlling its expansion and contraction in the interest of economic stability.

HAROLD GLUCK

Walton High School
Bronx, New York

The Old Stone Capitol Remembers. By Benjamin F. Shambaugh. Iowa City: State Historical Society, 1939. Pp. 435. \$3.00.

In commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of Iowa City in 1839, the author vividly sketches the growth of Iowa City, as a political center 1839-1857, and as a cultural center from 1857 to 1939. The selection of the site of Iowa City as the seat of territorial government of Iowa was the occasion for the birth of this frontier village which grew into a town of over 5000 by 1857. Iowa City was the capital of the newly admitted state of Iowa from 1846 to 1857 when the state government moved into its new capital at Des Moines. The Old Stone Capitol in Iowa City, once the home of legislative assemblies and constitutional conventions, now became a cultural center. The State had donated its public buildings and grounds to the State University of Iowa which had been established by Act of the General Assembly in 1847. The Constitution

of 1857 definitely located Iowa City as the permanent home of the University.

The author, as a state historian, expresses a justifiable pride in the fact that the Old Stone Capitol has also become the home of the State Historical Society of Iowa. The chapters on frontier life in the forties, the coming of the first steamboat in 1841, and the completion of the railroad to Iowa City in 1856, portray interesting, dramatic episodes in the story of western settlement.

QUINTUS LEATHERMAN

Souderton, Pennsylvania

The Censor Marches On. By Morris L. Ernst and Alexander Lindley. New York: Doubleday, Doran, and Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 346. \$2.50.

This volume is of value to teachers in spite of, or perhaps because of, its concentration upon the efforts to save society from sex. It discusses literature, sex instruction, birth control, the movies, the radio, and the graphic and plastic arts, primarily a story of the past two decades. The authors, who have argued many important sex censorship cases, stress the fact that not only have some "victories" erased the stigma of obscenity from sex education, but also have "laid bare the functioning of the censorship process." They note that victories have come from court decisions, not from the repeal of laws. The authors carry the issue to a broader plane by insisting that sex censorship breeds other censorship.

R. H.

Prologue to War. By Elizabeth Wiskemann. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940. Pp. ix, 332. \$3.00.

What makes this volume a boon for American readers is the skill with which the author treats those countries lying to the east of the Rome-Berlin axis, the Balkans, and the Poles, Ukrainians, and Balts. But Part II, by discussing countries west of the axis in fewer pages and the effect of the German campaign there, makes a contrast which the author considers very important. She finds Switzerland to be the most representative community in the west and describes its power of resistance. The fact that the book was finished in July 1939 and first published unaltered in September without any loss of keenness is a high tribute to its British author.

R. H.

How to Think Straight. By R. H. Thouless. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1939. Pp. viii, 246. \$2.00.

This is a readable book that should be studied by social scientists and the public. Especially valuable to teachers is Dr. Thouless's discussion of the harm

that results from an attitude of academic detachment from practical issues. This work gives solutions for overcoming dishonest tricks in arguments. These can be classified as: appealing to the listener's interest, using emotionally-toned words, appealing to authority, evading the question, diverting the discussion to a side issue, using tabloid thinking and imperfect analogies. Appendix I which deals with thirty-four dishonest tricks used in argument and how to overcome them, summarizes the entire book in a few brief pages. This is followed by two discussions which show how we unconsciously use dishonest tricks to gain our points. One can measure his reasoning ability with the three tests that end the book.

CARL G. WINTER

McClatchy Senior High School
Sacramento, California

Education 1939; A Realistic Appraisal. By Porter Sargent. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1939. Pp. 160.

This reprint from the author's well-known *Handbook of Private Schools* (23rd edition) is written in vigorous style, affording a brief historical glance at fundamental changes and adaptations. With some thought-provoking satire, the traditional practices that survive in our educational mores are surveyed. This account of education "as a social process and a great industry" would serve as a good introduction for those who have not yet become acquainted with Mr. Sargent.

R. H.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

An Introduction to World Economic History Since the Great War. By J. P. Day. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xi, 161. \$1.15.

In his preface, the author of this brief study carefully expresses certain misgivings about his treatment. One is his fear that students may "believe that all our present troubles are due to the War and that none of them can be traced to earlier origins." Another is that critics may feel he has placed too much emphasis upon the monetary aspects of our post-war difficulties. The first danger is one that could not easily be avoided in such a volume. The second is more serious but, on the whole, Professor Day is careful not to exaggerate the significance of the monetary mechanism as compared with other and usually more important phenomena.

The order of treatment is to stress first the legacies of maladjustment, debt and distrust left by the World War, and then to describe the first slump in prices (1920-22), the first devaluations (1923-28), the "lost chance," the second slump in prices (1929-33), the second devaluations (1931-36), and finally the present position. The descriptions are clear and only here and there is the reader left in doubt as to the

author's meaning. Doubtless it is unreasonable to expect any writer to make all his references entirely clear in a volume purposely made concise.

Yet a reviewer is tempted to call attention to a few statements that are made without qualification, but on matters that are at least controversial. One is the inference (p. 51) that prices rose sharply in the United States preceding the crash in 1929, a statement which is true of security but not of commodity prices. A second is the contention in several places that the price of \$35 per ounce for gold has been at least a leading cause of the heavy gold imports into the United States. This is stoutly denied by many who believe that these gold imports are due primarily, if not solely, to other causes. Also the chart entitled "Corporate Issues for New Capital, U.S.A." (p. 127) is misleading, since it implies that the amounts indicated year by year at least approximate the additions to durable capital equipment. An accurate explanation would include references to private placements of securities, reinvested earnings, depreciation reserves that may be excessive, etc., etc.

It should be repeated, however, that so brief a survey as is given in this volume is extremely difficult. The author has done it well even though a reviewer dissents on many points.

ERNEST MINOR PATTERSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Citizenship and Civic Affairs. By Harold Rugg. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940. Pp. xv, 610. Illustrated. \$1.88.

The most important feature about any book is its readability and this book is certainly readable. The vocabulary is carefully selected and suitable for the slower student. However it is in no sense a watered down version. Units three and four on government are an excellent combination of historical background, contemporary problems, facts, figures, diagrams, and illustrations all well organized and vitally presented. These units are mentioned because the mechanics of government is a hard subject to make live.

Other units are equally well done. Among these Public Opinion, Education, and Magazines, Newspapers, and Books, contain good factual and historical information and could easily be integrated with an English course. Illustrative material is realistic.

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For example Frank R. Kent's work is used in the chapter on Party Politics and the Public Affairs pamphlets are used in appropriate places. In the chapter on the Family and the Community Life, the Lynds' books, *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition* are frequently quoted. The description of the homes of the various classes of Americans is a job well done. This starts with the very poor and the unemployed and moves up the economic scale.

The almost inevitable weakness in any textbook is oversimplification. This feature seems to have been reduced to a minimum. There is a wealth of sociological, factual, and historical detail. There is sufficient repetition of ideas and the summarizing paragraphs are most useful. The wide variety of supplementary readings are well chosen to meet the needs of all types of students. The contrasts between the fortunate and the unfortunate, the life of low and high income groups, social and anti-social behavior are all well brought out. The sequel to this book will be *America Rebuilds*. It will deal with the Farm Problem, Cities, Housing, Security, Youth, Industrial Life, Government, Artistic, and Creative Frontiers. These are timely and vital subjects and *America Rebuilds* will be awaited with interest.

HENRY L. PARISH

George School

George School, Pennsylvania

Democracy Readers: School Friends, by Lois G. Nemec. Pp. vii, 80. 72 cents.

Let's Take Turns, by Lois G. Nemec. Pp. vii, 180. 72 cents.

Enjoying Our Land, by Maybell G. Bush. Pp. ix, 181. 84 cents.

Your Land and Mine, by Helen M. Brindl. Pp. x, 246. 92 cents.

Toward Freedom, by Ruth Mills Robinson. Pp. ix, 278. 96 cents.

Pioneering in Democracy, by Edna Morgan. Pp. xvi, 366. \$1.00.

The Way of Democracy, by Allen Y. King and Ida Dennis. Pp. viii, 400. \$1.20. Series edited by Prudence Cutright and W. W. Charters. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.

This is an interesting series of readers using citizenship as a center and drawing on history and geography as necessary to develop the aspects of democracy. These books leave no doubt as to their purpose to indoctrinate in American democracy. Perhaps more of such indoctrination is what we need.

The series is based on the idea that "democracy is growth" and that "self-criticism is . . . essential to any growing democracy." Therefore, to foster this growth, to provide the elementary grade child with material with which to think, appreciate, and in-

telligently evaluate criticism of the American Way, training in democracy is necessary. This, these readers endeavor to provide.

These *Democracy Readers* endeavor to provide training in twelve aspects of democratic citizenship. No one of the readers is devoted to one or two of these, although due to the material used one is occasionally emphasized more than the others in a particular book. The twelve characteristics are treated in each book on each grade level. Each book is organized in units. With the unit titles listed in the "Table of Contents" of each book are indicated the particular characteristics treated in that unit. "The pattern woven into the warp of the twelve characteristics take different forms in the books."

The pre-primer and the primer treat intimate contacts of the small child in his relation to his environment. The book for the second grade, *Enjoying our Land*, through the topic of vacations introduces the young citizen to considerable geography of our country. The third grade book, *Your Land and Mine*, while carrying out the other aims as well, is principally concerned with the "practice of the fundamental social virtues" and "the responsibility of the individual to participate in the duties of democracy."

Toward Freedom for the fourth grade develops the understanding and growth in the selected aspects of democratic citizenship along European backgrounds. This book also provides interesting correlation with music appreciation. Chapter V, "A Happy Sunday," providing "a contrast with that of the Old World in religion, education, and standards of living," is unusual. Contrast, as an aid to understanding, is emphasized in these readers by comparison of democratic with autocratic ways of living. This is particularly true of *Toward Freedom*.

The book for the fifth grade, *Pioneering in Democracy*, includes the following units: "Freedom of Religion"; "A Struggle for Independence"; "Life, Liberty and Happiness"; "Builders of America"; "Using What We Have Without Waste"; "Inventors in a Democracy"; "Schools in a Democracy"; "Clubs in a School Democracy"; "Qualities Found in Great Americans."

The sixth grade book, *The Way of Democracy*, traces historically our rights as set forth in the Constitution: "Foundations of Our Liberties"; "Rule by the Majority"; "Trial by Jury"; etc. concluding with contrasts between "Democracy and Dictatorship" and means of "Building Democracy and Citizenship."

There is a *Teachers' Manual* for the series which contains helpful suggestions for supplementary reading and some very useful lists of visual and auditory aids.

The books are prepared in a style attractive to the child-level for which they are intended. The textual material is carefully adjusted to the grade level.

There are "Things to Do" in the books for grades three and four and lists of "Activities" in those for the fifth and sixth grades. In the third grade *Your Land and Mine*, a "Word List" is supplied; including page by page, all words except proper names, not previously listed in the Gates-Huber-Pearson *New Work-Play Books*. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade books this word list becomes a glossary. The series is fully illustrated with delightful drawings.

GRACE CROYLE HANKINS

Camden, New Jersey

Sidelights and Source Studies of American History.

Book One. A Workbook. By Harriet H. Shoen and Erling M. Hunt. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. v, 103. Paper covers. 90 cents.

This is a combination source book and work book which treats the period from the discovery of America to the close of the Civil War. The historical selections are interesting and can be used with profit as supplementary reading. The illustrations are excellently done.

Lords and Gentlemen. By Louise Hall Tharp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. 188. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Do you buy toys for Junior so that you may play? Or books—that you may have freedom from adult complexities? Then come—enjoy the adventures of Peter Cutler in the company of lords and gentlemen. Peter is a scullery boy at the King's Head Inn close to Bellingsgate Wharf in London. In spite of the hunger, cold, and abuse, he learned much at London's busiest wharf. Most of all, Peter studied ships. The *Bachelor*, a Norsey, a mere cockle-shell to some, proved a staunch vessel to Peter after he succeeded in shipping as cabin boy through the good offices of Sergeant Lion Gardiner and Mistress Gardiner. Their adventures in the new world, and the establishment of the fort at Saybrook, Connecticut, prove engrossing. His capture by the Indians, and Peter's heroic escape provoke Oh's and Ah's of suspense and admiration. Junior learns history in this new, exciting fashion—his Dad renews his youth.

LOUISE SIGMUND

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Your Personal Economics. By Augustus H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 651. Illustrated. \$1.96.

Here is a book which should command the attention of those social studies teachers who are looking for an economics text with emphasis upon consumer problems. This book is written in an interesting,

understandable, and provocative style. It provides a great wealth of practical materials presented in such a manner as to be understood by all of the pupils.

The materials are organized around nine unit topics such as: managing your income; use and abuse of credit; adventures in buying; how insurance protects you; making money work for you; choosing your life work. The chapters are short, pithy and well organized to develop ideas. There is an excellent glossary of technical terms.

The teaching aids include a statement of aims for each chapter, a summary, questions for review and for thought, and many case studies which make ideal problems. Illustrations make up about eighteen per cent of the textual space.

The unit dealing with buying is especially well done. The author forcefully displays all the devices of advertising, questionable business schemes and rackets, and then the unit ends with a chapter describing the many government and private agencies which disseminate useful information, enabling the consumer to ferret out the truth about proposed investments and purchases. This practical approach should appeal to both teachers and pupils.

VICTOR E. PITKIN

Walter S. Parker Junior High School
Reading, Massachusetts

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Matrimonial Shoals. By Royal D. Rood. Detroit: Detroit Law Book Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 424. \$3.50.

Study of the efforts of social workers to lighten the burdens of those who found the problems of marital adaptation beyond their ability to solve, and of the unfortunate damage which appears to result from those efforts. By a lawyer.

An Introduction to World Economic History since the Great War. By J. P. Day. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 161. \$1.15.

A very convenient summary.

Iowa Through the Years. By Cyrenus Cole. Iowa City: State Historical Society, 1940. Pp. 547. \$3.00

The first volume of the Iowa Centennial History, from discovery and exploration to the present. Good reading.

Nationalism. By a study group of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. xx, 360. \$3.75.

Report of a study group in London. Essential reading for the troublesome problem of nationalism.

Should be of value to nearly all teachers because of the ramifications of nationalism.

A Man Who Found a Country. By A. Nakashian. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 279. \$2.75.

A very colorful story about an Armenian doctor who lived through the last days of the Ottoman Empire, and later came to the United States. Would make satisfactory collateral reading.

France—A History of National Economics. By Shepard B. Clough. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1939. Pp. ix, 498. \$3.50.

A very useful volume with excellent bibliographical notes. Carries the story from 1789 to 1939. A book for the layman and the scholar that will explain many problems facing Europe today.

The Atlantic Migration, 1607-1860. By Marcus Lee Hansen. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xvii, 391. \$3.50.

A delightful, scholarly study, emphasizing conditions in Europe which prompted migration.

Alexis de Tocqueville: A Biographical Essay in Political Science. By J. P. Mayer. New York: The Viking Press, 1940. Pp. xvii, 225. \$3.00.

A stimulating and careful study by a historian of European political thought who is editing the complete works of de Tocqueville, one of America's most prominent and influential interpreters.

National Socialism and the Roman Catholic Church. By Nathaniel Micklem. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. xi, 237. \$3.00.

Important study of the conflict between the Nazis and Catholics, 1933-1938, by the Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford. Essential reading.

The Living Thoughts of Emerson. Presented by Edgar Lee Masters. New York: Longmans Green and Co., 1940. Pp. 169. \$1.00.

The volumes in the Living Thoughts Library should be in every school. Each volume is "presented" by well-known writers with capable introductions.

The Living Thoughts of Jefferson. Presented by John Dewey. New York: Longmans Green and Co., 1940. Pp. 173. \$1.00.

A very happy combination—Jefferson and the philosopher John Dewey.

The Living Thoughts of Pascal. Presented by Francois Mauriac. New York: Longmans Green and Co., 1940. Pp. 151. \$1.00.

A good opportunity for Americans to meet both Pascal and an eminent French writer.

The Living Thoughts of Tom Paine. Presented by John Dos Passos. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940. Pp. 185. \$1.00.

A great pamphleteer "presented" by a writer who fifteen years ago set out to write the symphony of American life. Attractive format which characterizes this series known as the Living Thoughts Library, Edited by Alfred O. Mendel.

The Story of our Nation; its beginning and its growth. By Sister Mary Celeste. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 728, liv. Illustrated. \$1.88.

Organized in eight units and twenty-three problems. Much is said of the Catholic Church. There is a total of 145 pages of problem questions and 152 individual activities.

This Constitution of Ours. By Florence E. Allen. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1940. Pp. x, 198. \$2.00.

By an American jurist who sees the Constitution as an integral part of our every day life. Interesting and well-written. Suitable for class use.

Planning Your Future. By G. E. Myers, G. M. Little, and S. A. Robinson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1940. Pp. x, 549. Illustrated. \$1.65.

An occupational civics text for young people. For a course largely of laboratory character. First published in 1930.

Civil Service in Public Welfare. By Alice C. Klein. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1940. Pp. 444. \$2.25.

A discussion of effective selection of social work personnel through the merit system.

A History of Western Civilization. Vol. II. By Arthur P. Watts. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. Pp. xvii, 1055. Maps. \$5.00. College edition, \$3.75.

A detailed and well-presented story from the Reformation to the present. Can be used also as a reference volume for high school libraries.

Citizens at Work. By J. S. Young, E. M. Barton, L. E. Johnston. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940. Pp. xx, 402. Illustrated. \$1.32.

A text in economic citizenship. Material has been tested by classroom use. Effective pedagogical aids.

Pragmatism and Pedagogy. By Thomas H. Briggs. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 124. \$1.25.

A challenge to apply the pragmatic test to the work of the public schools. Explains the meaning of culture.